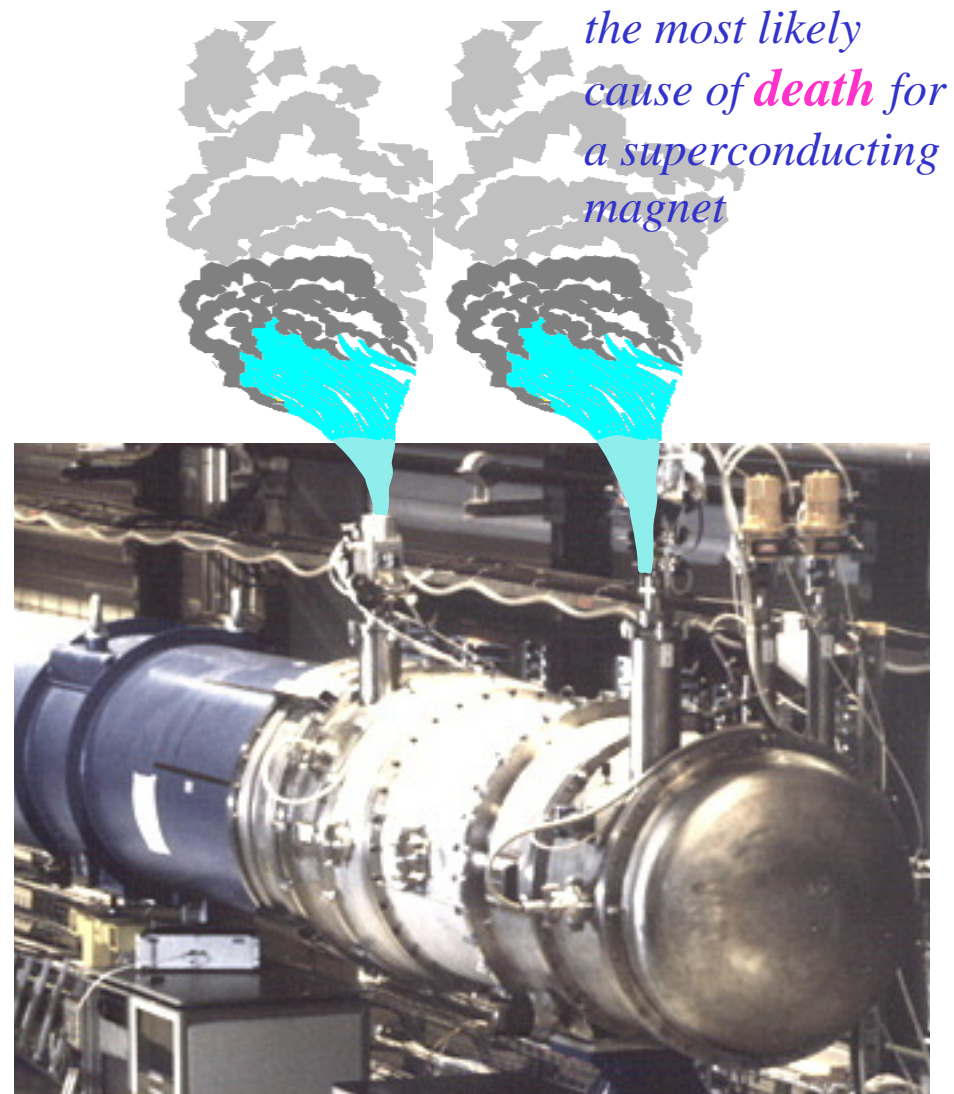


# Lecture 5: Quenching and some other Accelerators

## Plan

- the quench process
- decay times and temperature rise
- propagation of the resistive zone
- resistance growth and decay times
- quench protection schemes
- case study: LHC protection
- pictures of superconducting accelerators



*the most likely  
cause of **death** for  
a superconducting  
magnet*

# Magnetic stored energy

## Magnetic energy density

$$E = \frac{B^2}{2\mu_0} \quad \text{at 5T} \quad E = 10^7 \text{ Joule.m}^{-3} \quad \text{at 10T} \quad E = 4 \times 10^7 \text{ Joule.m}^{-3}$$

## LHC dipole magnet (twin apertures)

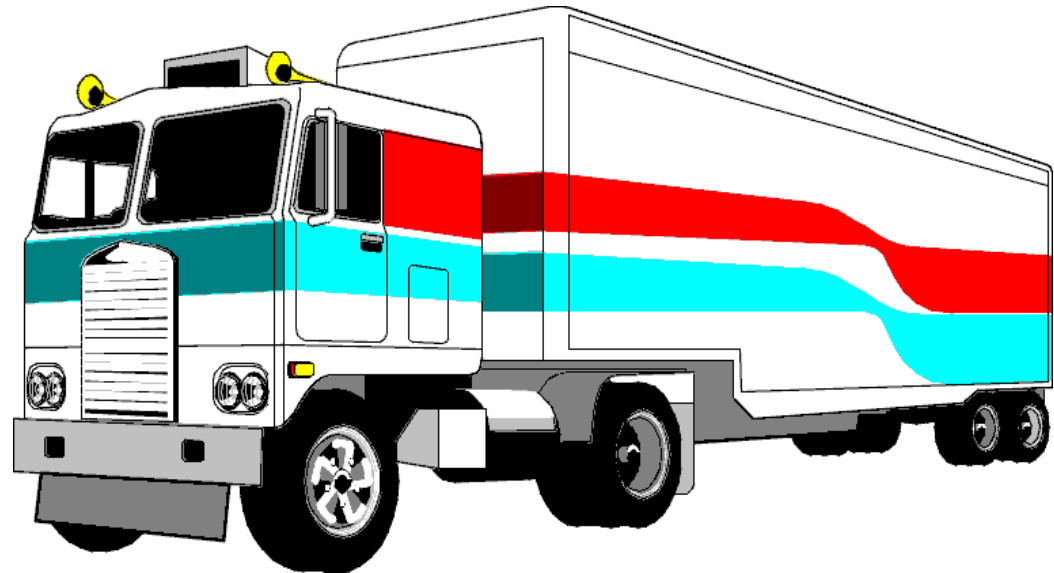
$$E = \frac{1}{2}LI^2 \quad L = 0.12\text{H} \quad I = 11.5\text{kA}$$

$$E = 7.8 \times 10^6 \text{ Joules}$$

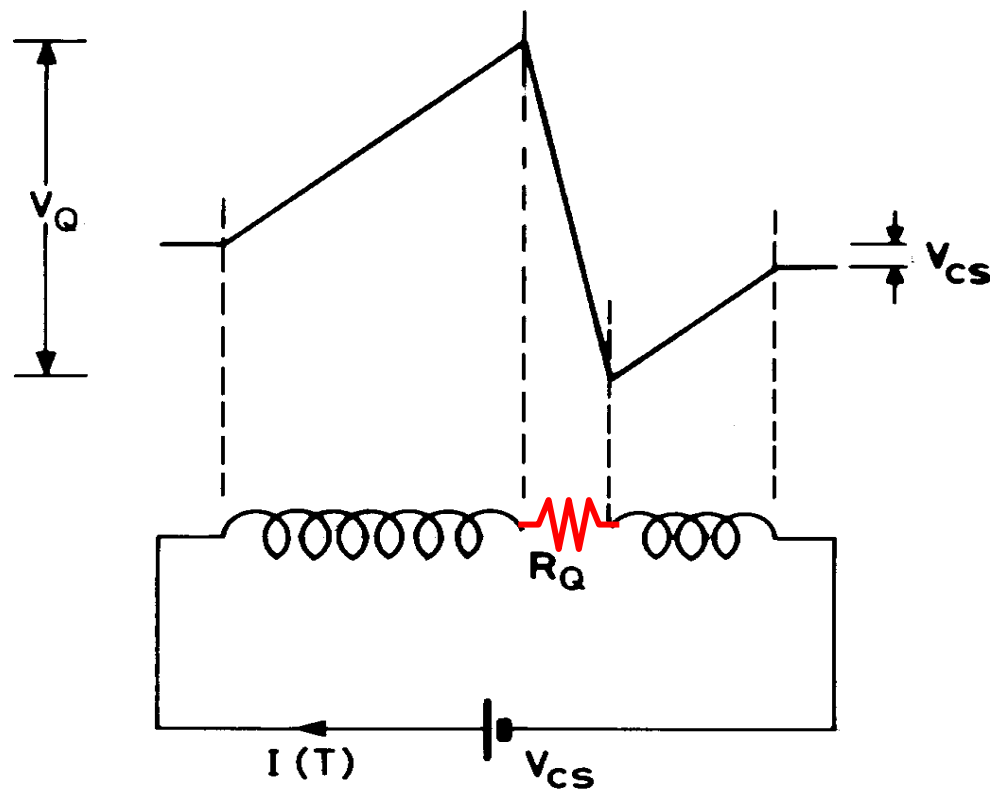
the magnet weighs 26 tonnes

so the magnetic stored energy is  
equivalent to the kinetic energy  
of:-

**26 tonnes travelling at 88km/hr**



# The quench process



- resistive region starts somewhere in the winding at a **point**  
- **this is the problem!**
- it grows by thermal conduction
- stored energy  $\frac{1}{2}LI^2$  of the magnet is dissipated as heat
- greatest integrated heat dissipation is at point where the quench starts
- internal voltages much greater than terminal voltage ( $= V_{cs}$  current supply)
- maximum temperature may be calculated from the current decay time via the  $U(\theta)$  function (adiabatic approximation)

# The temperature rise function $U(\theta)$

or the 'fuse blowing' calculation  
(adiabatic approximation)

$$J^2(T)\rho(\theta)dT = \gamma C(\theta)d\theta$$

$J(T)$  = overall current density,

$T$  = time,

$\rho(\theta)$  = overall resistivity,

$\gamma$  = density,  $\theta$  = temperature,

$C(\theta)$  = specific heat,

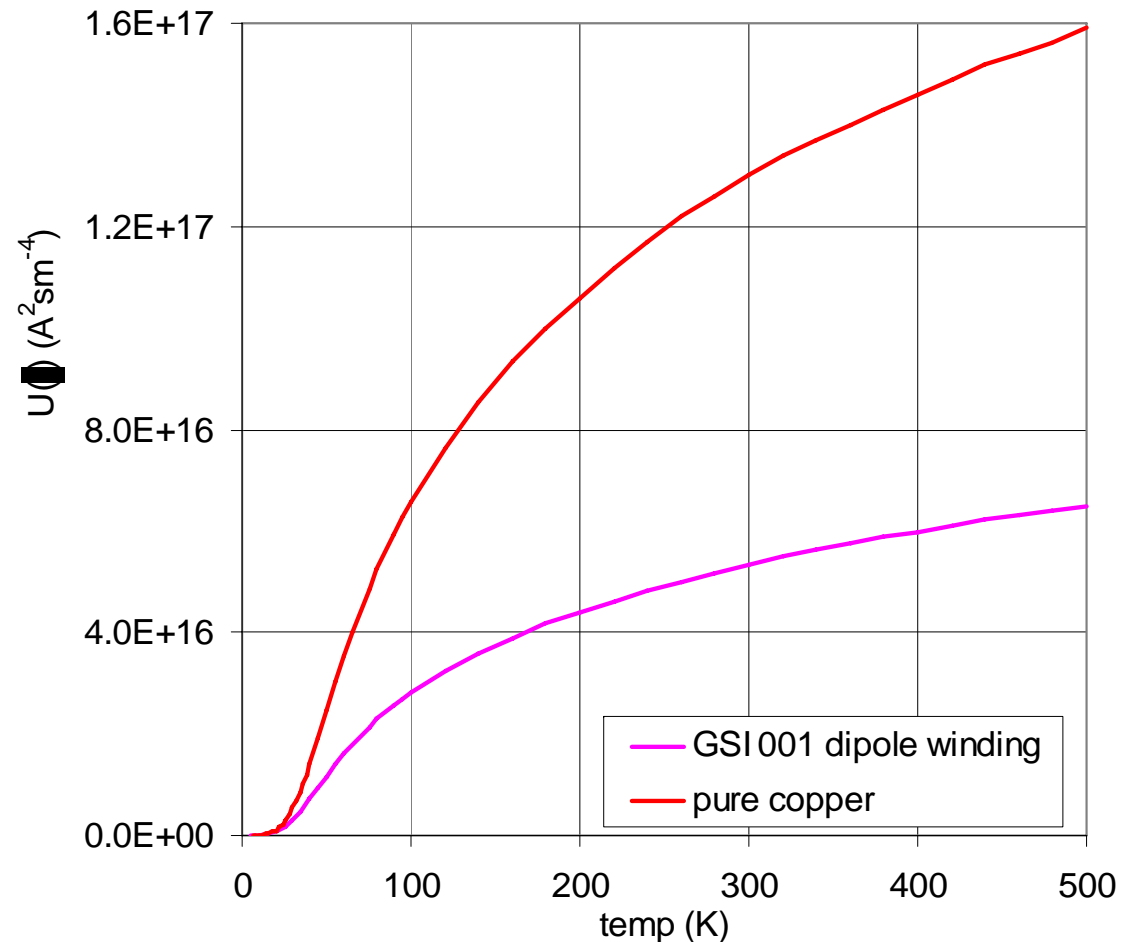
$T_Q$  = quench decay time.

$$\int_0^\infty J^2(T) dT = \int_{\theta_0}^{\theta_m} \frac{\gamma C(\theta)}{\rho(\theta)} d\theta$$

$$= U(\theta_m)$$

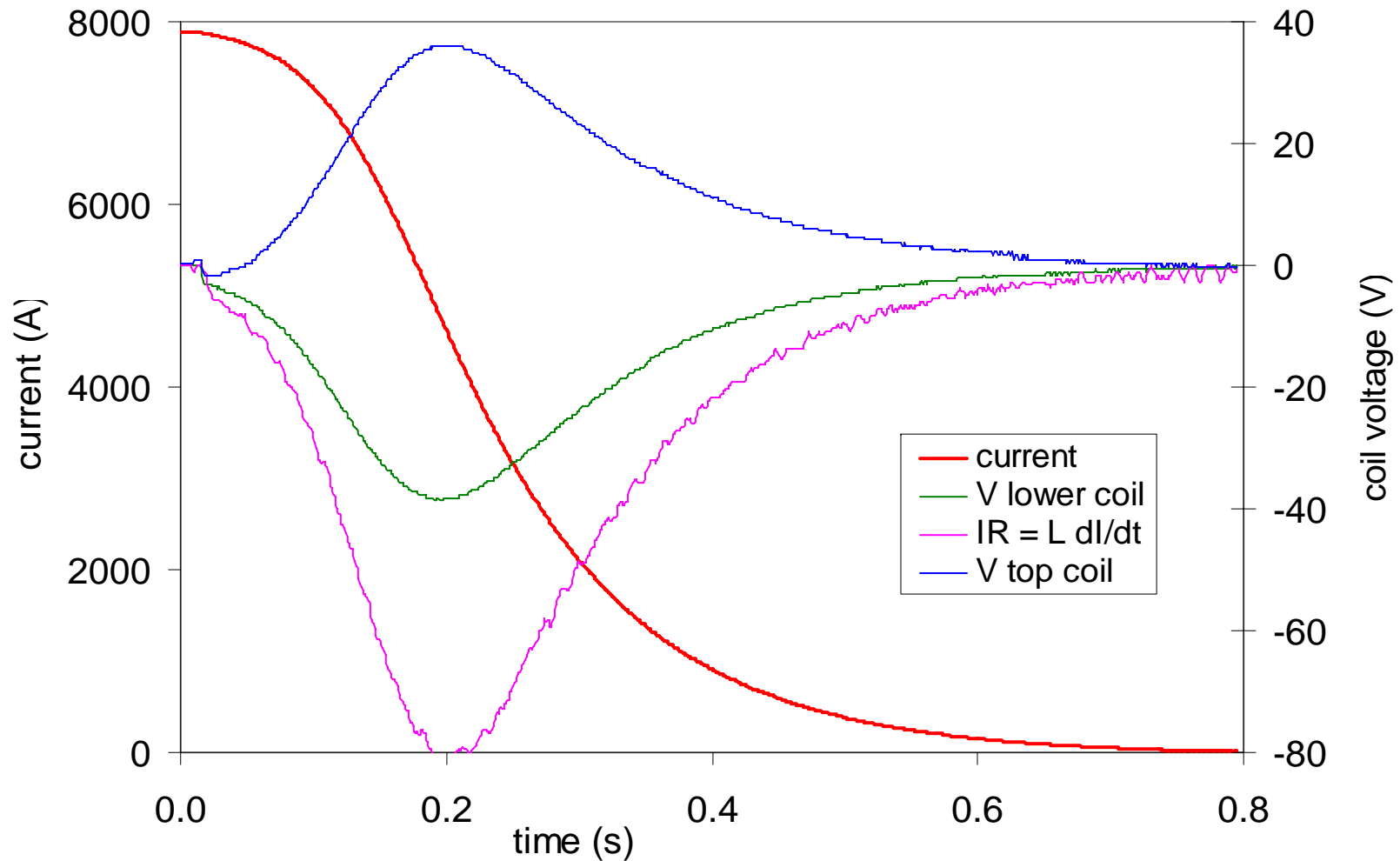
$$J_o^2 T_Q = U(\theta_m)$$

- GSI 001 dipole winding is  
50% copper, 22% NbTi,  
16% Kapton and 3% stainless steel



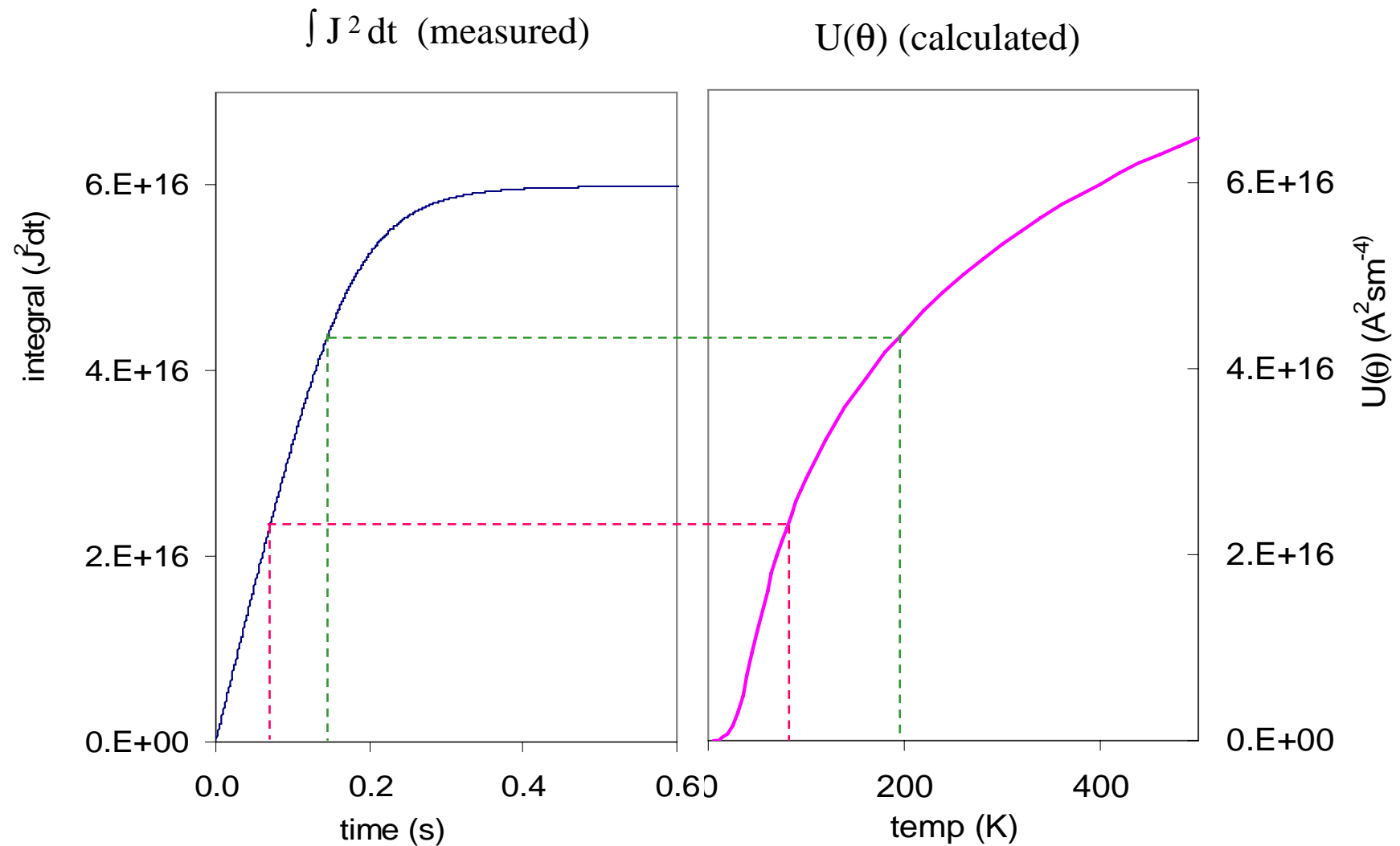
- NB always use **overall** current density

# Measured current decay after a quench

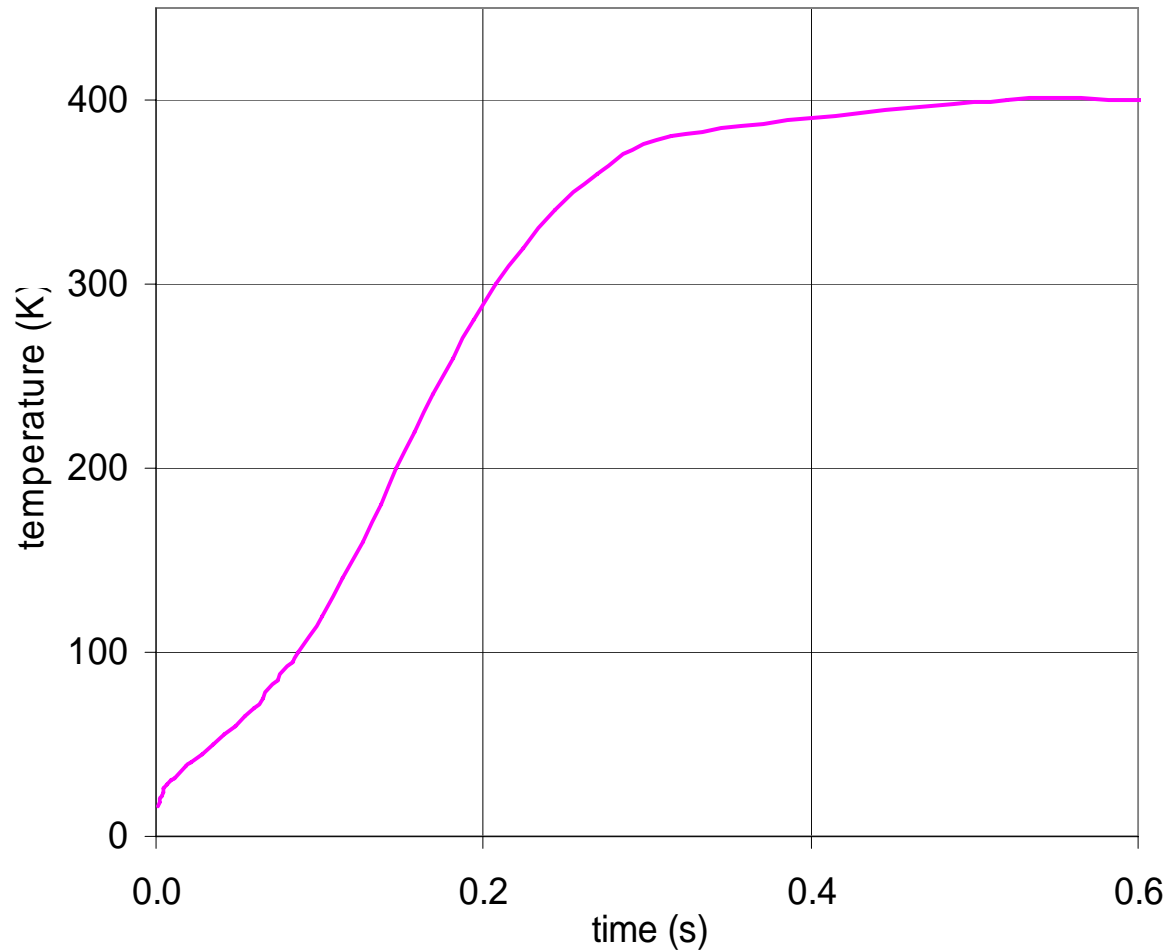


*Dipole GSI001 measured at Brookhaven National Laboratory*

# Calculating the temperature rise from the current decay curve

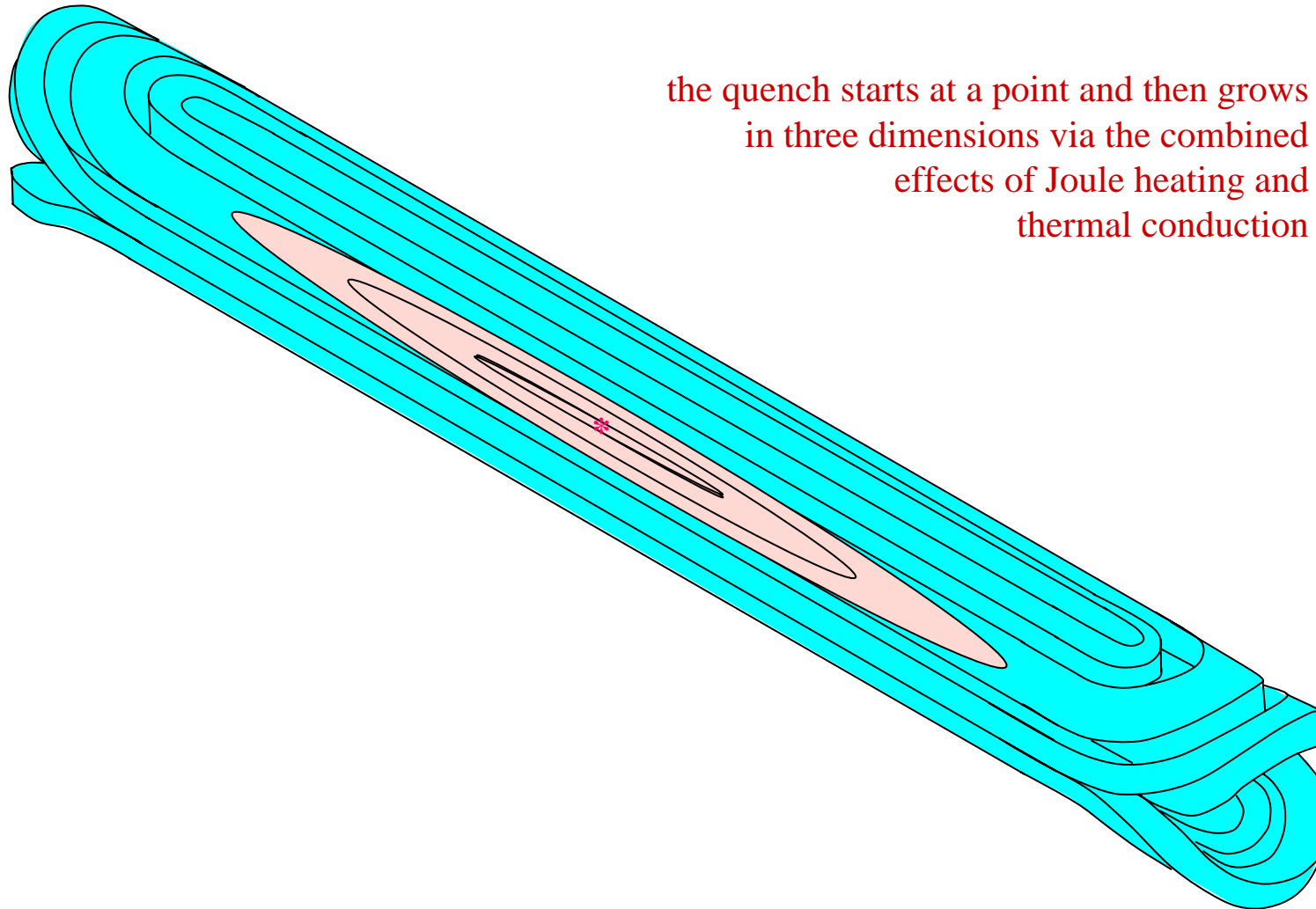


# Calculated temperature



- calculate the  $U(\theta)$  function from known materials properties
- measure the current decay profile
- calculate the maximum temperature rise at the point where quench starts
- we now know if the temperature rise is acceptable  
- but only after it has happened!
- need to calculate current decay curve before quenching

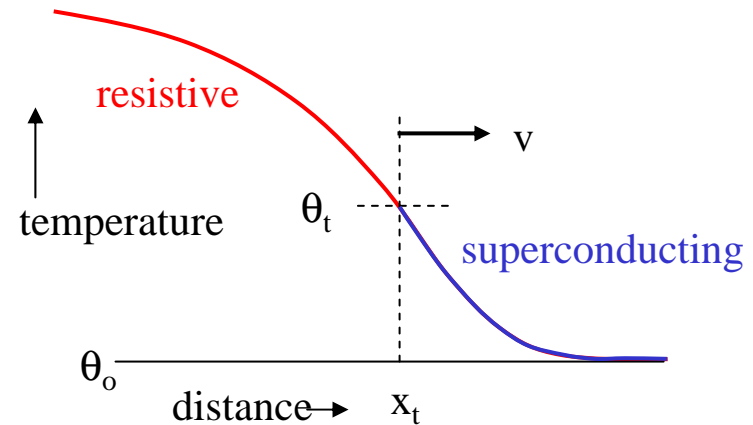
# *Growth of the resistive zone*





# Quench propagation velocity 1

- resistive zone starts at a point and spreads outwards
- the force driving it forward is the heat generation in the resistive zone, together with heat conduction along the wire
- write the heat conduction equations with resistive power generation  $J^2\rho$  per unit volume in left hand region and  $\rho = 0$  in right hand region.



$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( kA \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial x} \right) - \gamma C A \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} - hP(\theta - \theta_0) + J^2 \rho A = 0$$

where:  $k$  = thermal conductivity,  $A$  = area occupied by a single turn,  $\gamma$  = density,  $C$  = specific heat,  $h$  = heat transfer coefficient,  $P$  = cooled perimeter,  $\rho$  = resistivity,  $\theta_0$  = base temperature

**Note:** all parameters are averaged over  $A$  the cross section occupied by one turn

assume  $x_t$  moves to the right at velocity  $v$  and take a new coordinate  $\varepsilon = x - x_t = x - vt$

$$\frac{d^2 \theta}{d\varepsilon^2} + \frac{v \gamma C}{k} \frac{d\theta}{d\varepsilon} - \frac{hP}{kA} (\theta - \theta_0) + \frac{J^2 \rho}{k} = 0$$

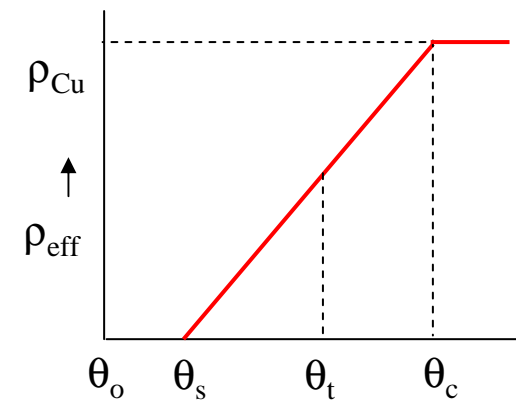
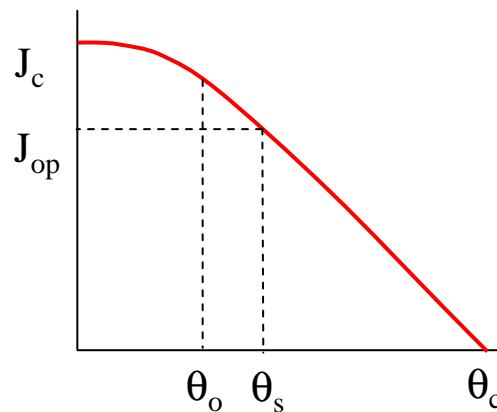
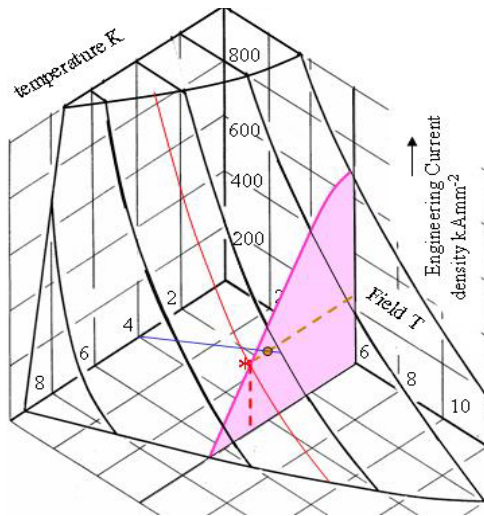
# Quench propagation velocity 2

when  $h = 0$ , the solution for  $\theta$  which gives a continuous join between left and right sides at  $\theta_t$  gives the **adiabatic propagation velocity**

$$v_{ad} = \frac{J}{\gamma C} \left\{ \frac{\rho k}{\theta_t - \theta_0} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{J}{\gamma C} \left\{ \frac{L_o \theta_t}{\theta_t - \theta_0} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \text{recap Wiedemann Franz Law} \quad \rho(\theta).k(\theta) = L_o \theta$$

## what to say about $\theta_t$ ?

- in a single superconductor it is just  $\theta_c$
- but in a practical filamentary composite wire the current transfers progressively to the copper
  - current sharing temperature  $\theta_s = \theta_o + \text{margin}$
  - zero current in copper below  $\theta_s$  all current in copper above  $\theta_s$
  - take a mean transition temperature  $\theta_s = (\theta_s + \theta_c)/2$



# Quench propagation velocity 3

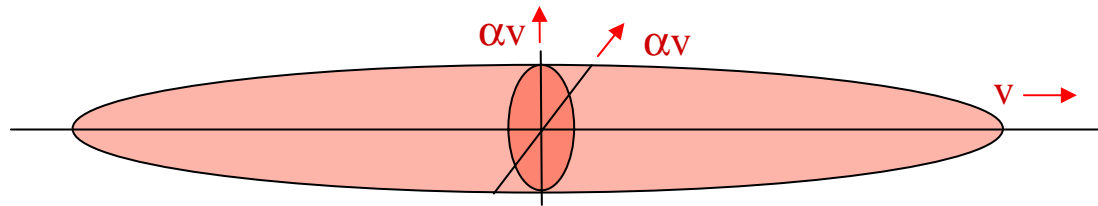
the resistive zone also propagates sideways through the inter-turn insulation (much more slowly)  
calculation is similar and the velocity ratio  $\alpha$  is:

$$\alpha = \frac{v_{trans}}{v_{long}} = \left\{ \frac{k_{trans}}{k_{long}} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

## Typical values

$$v_{ad} = 5 - 20 \text{ ms}^{-1} \quad \alpha = 0.01 - 0.03$$

so the resistive zone advances in the form of an ellipsoid, with its long dimension along the wire

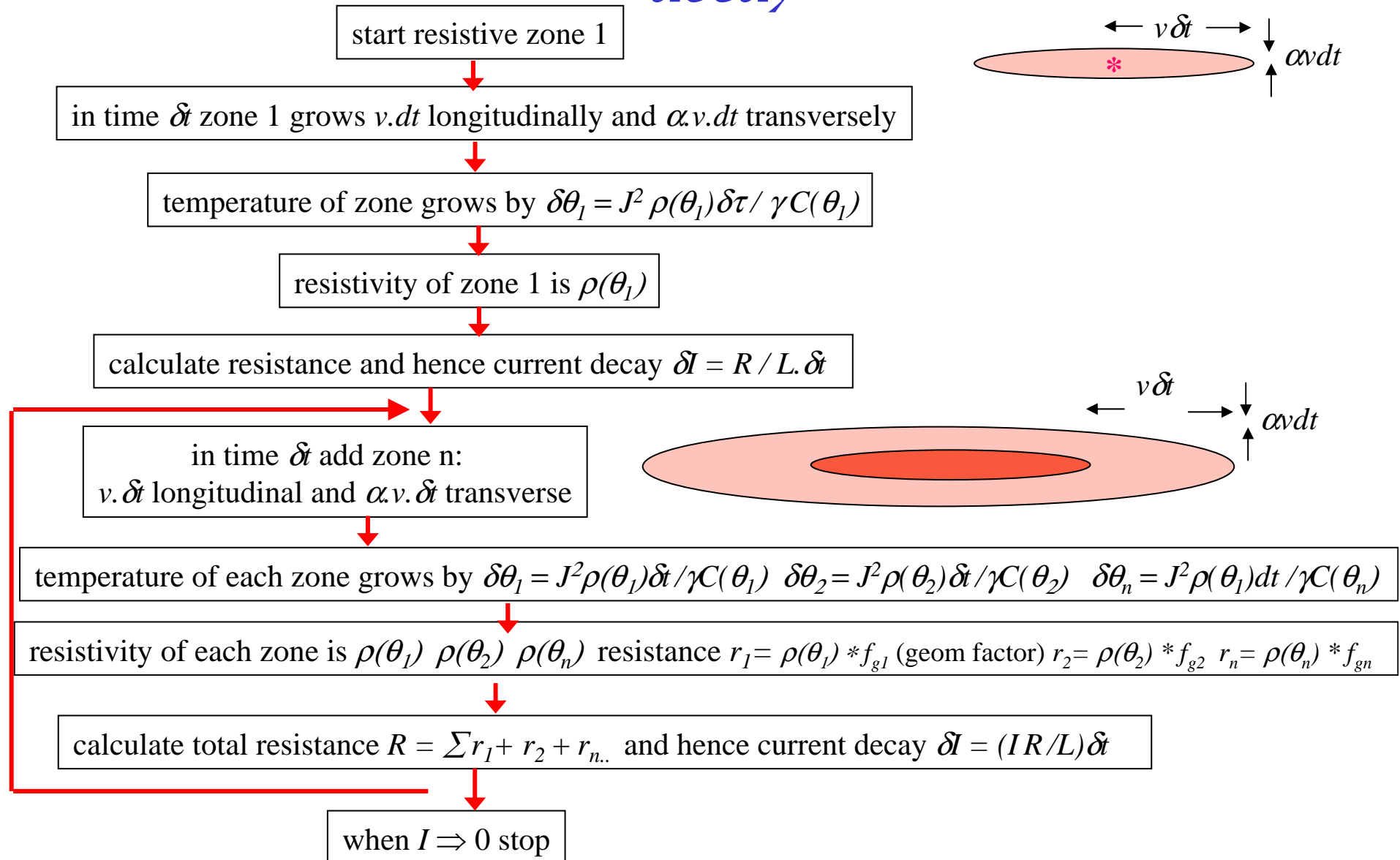


## Some corrections for a better approximation

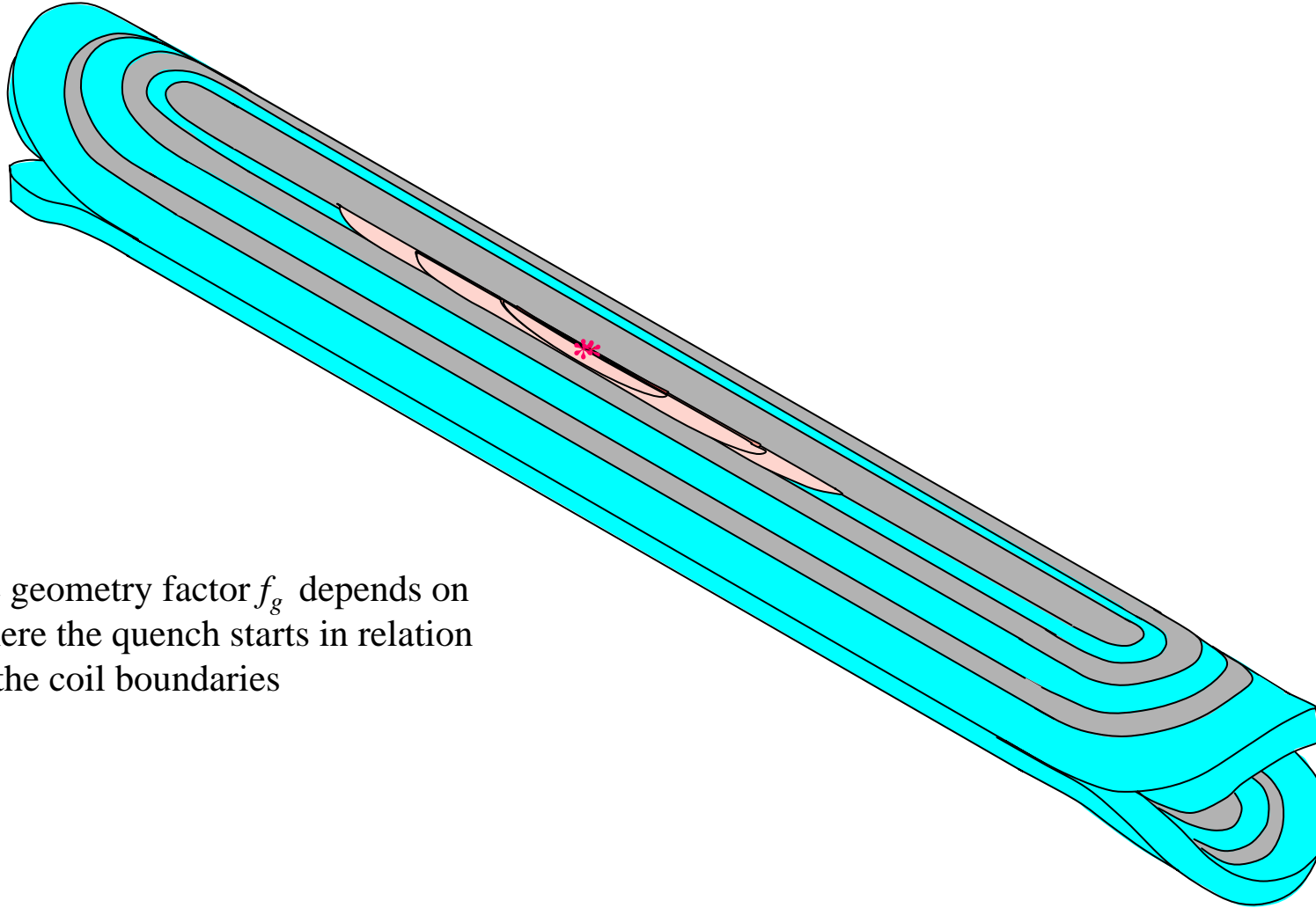
- because  $C$  varies so strongly with temperature, it is better to calculate an averaged  $C$  from the enthalpy change
- heat diffuses slowly into the insulation, so its heat capacity should be excluded from the averaged heat capacity when calculating longitudinal velocity - but not transverse velocity
- if the winding is porous to liquid helium (usual in accelerator magnets) need to include a time dependent heat transfer term
- can approximate all the above, but for a really good answer must solve (numerically) the three dimensional heat diffusion equation or, even better, measure it!

$$C_{av}(\theta_g, \theta_c) = \frac{H(\theta_c) - H(\theta_g)}{(\theta_c - \theta_g)}$$

# Computation of resistance growth and current decay

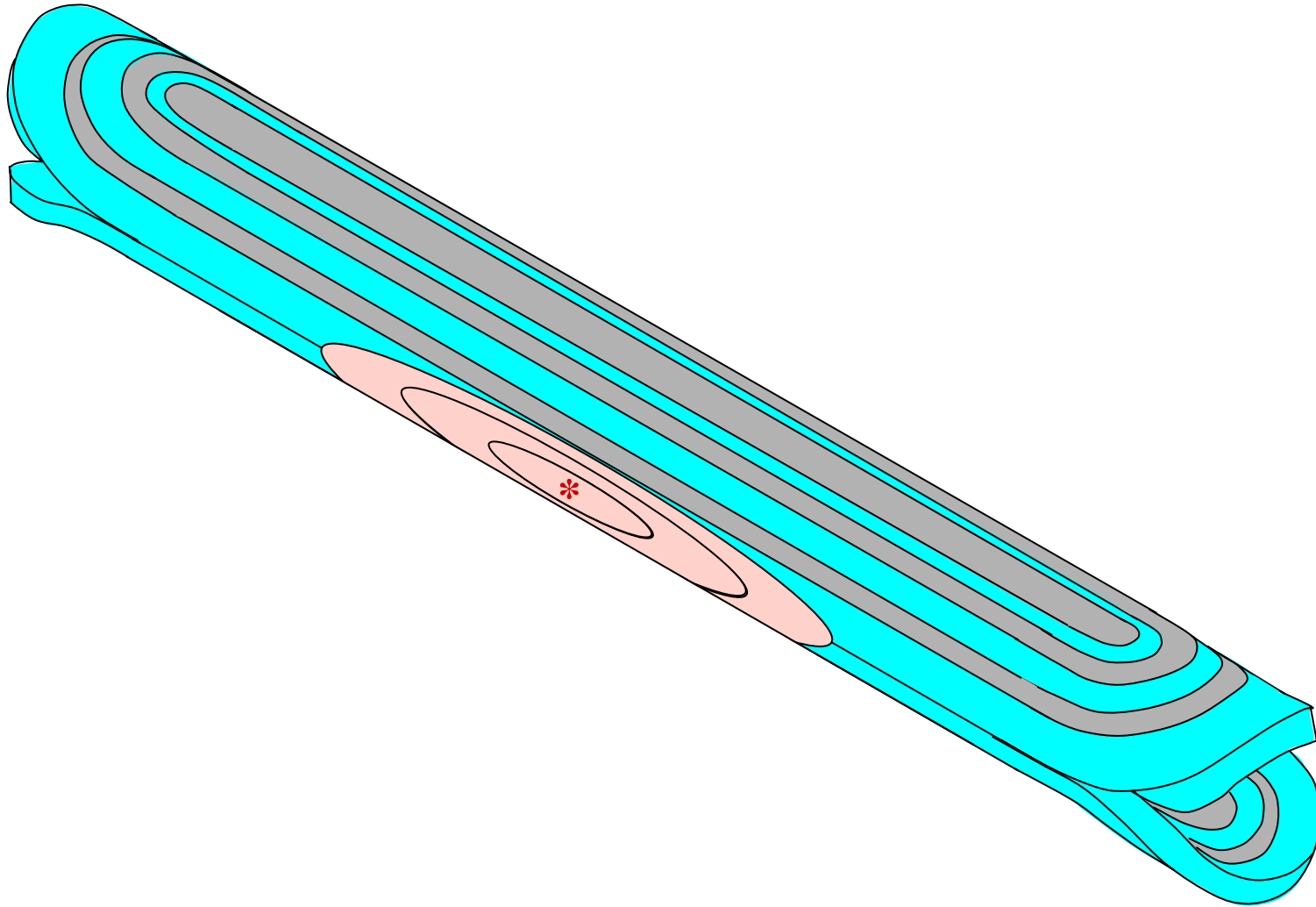


# *Quench starts in the pole region*

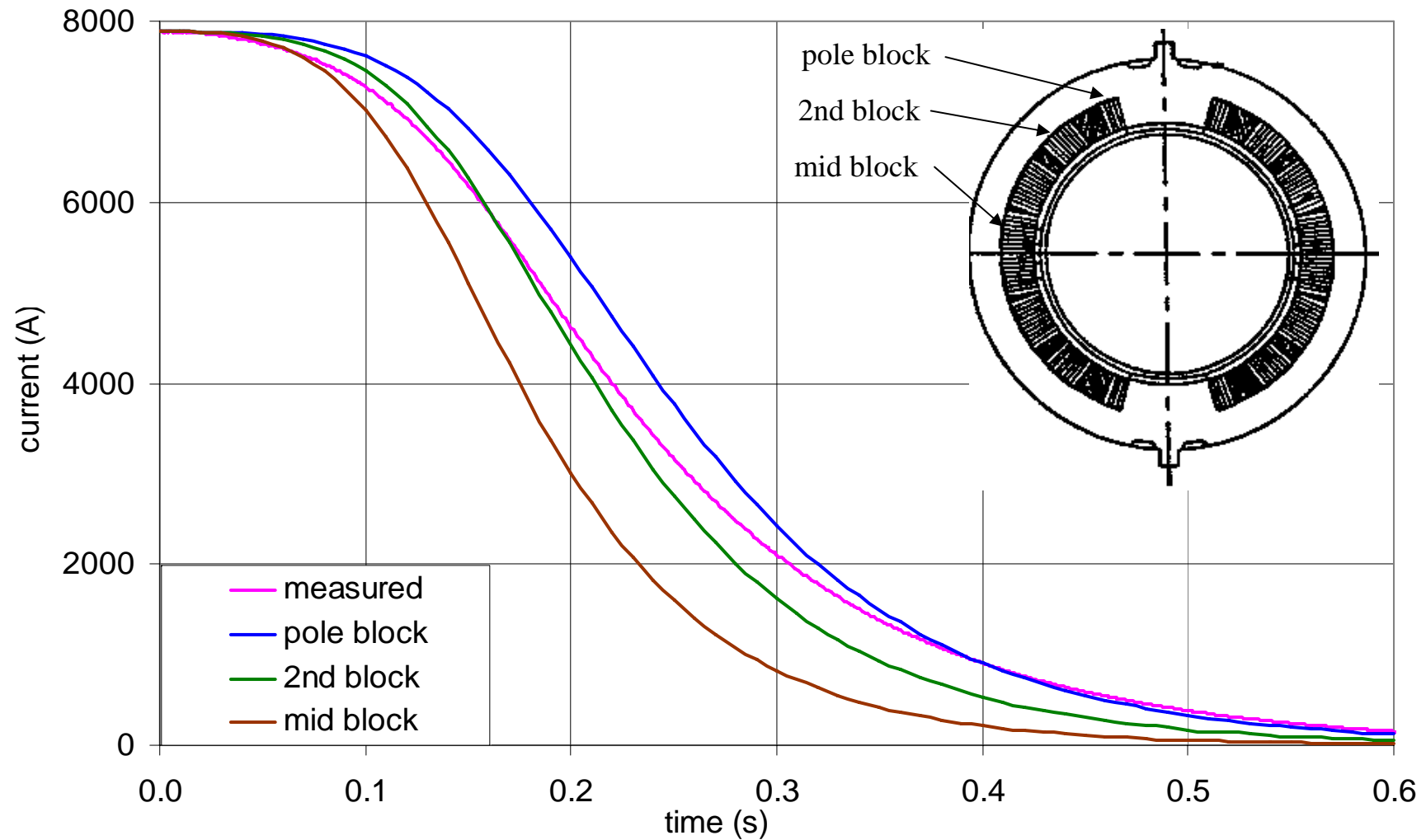


the geometry factor  $f_g$  depends on  
where the quench starts in relation  
to the coil boundaries

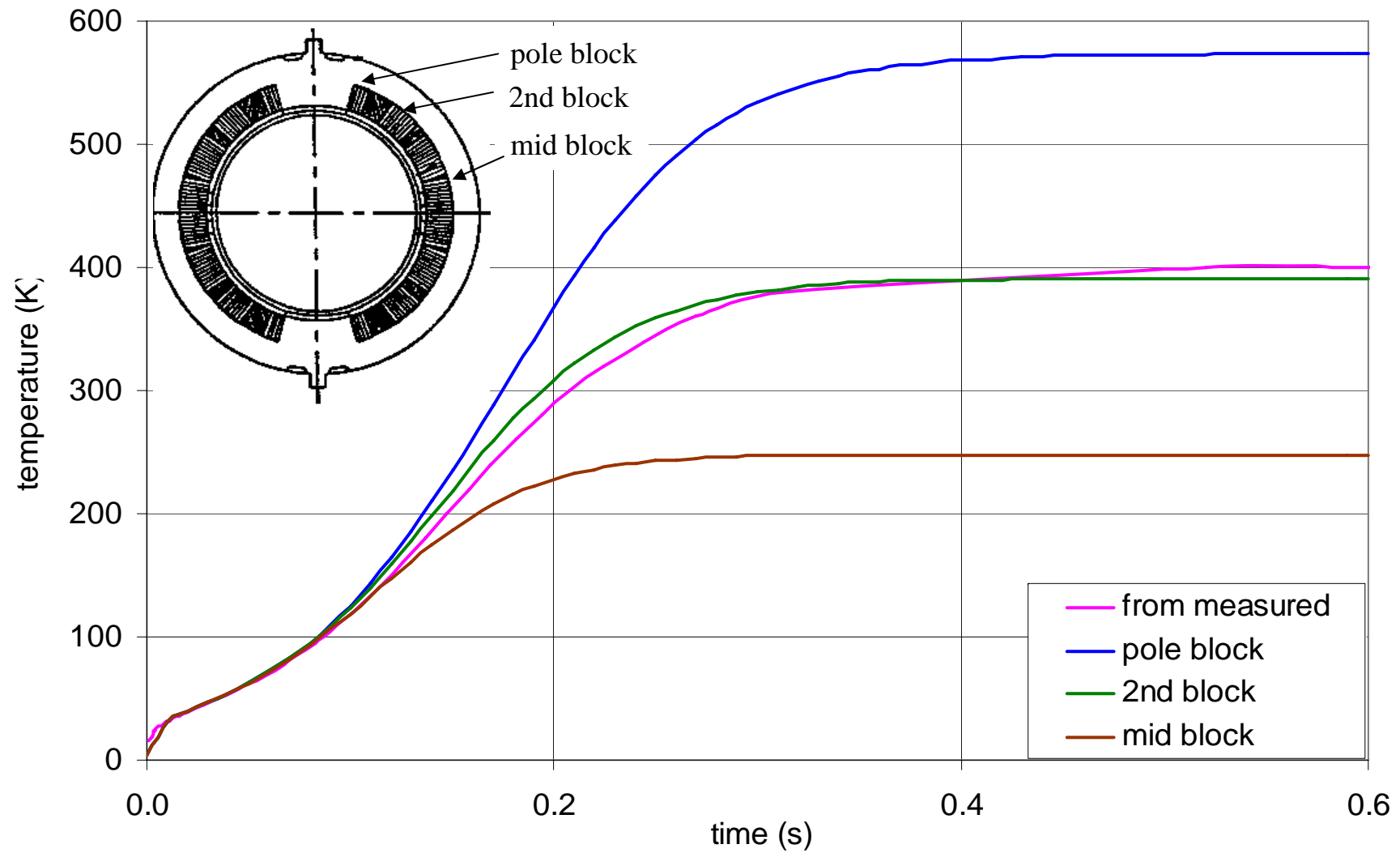
# *Quench starts in the mid plane*



# Computer simulation of quench (dipole GSI001)



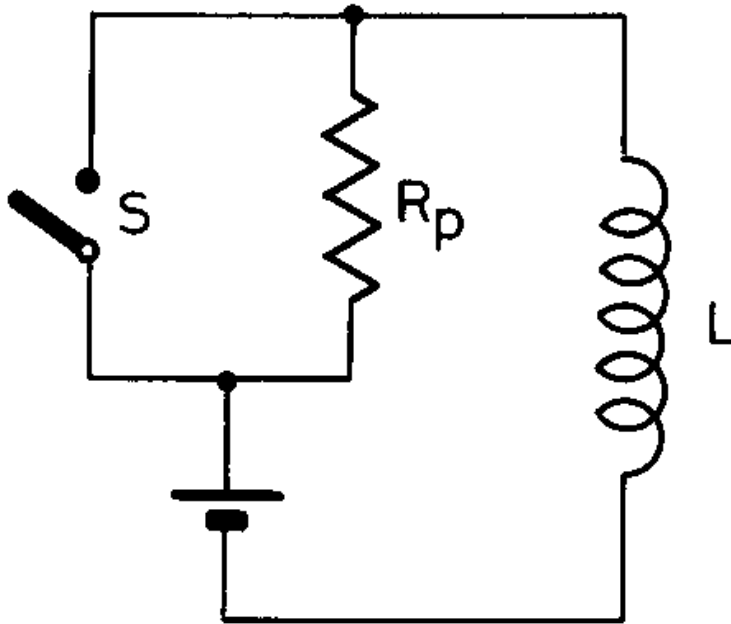
# Computer simulation of quench temperature rise





## Methods of quench protection:

### 1) external dump resistor



- detect the quench electronically
- open an external circuit breaker
- force the current to decay with a time constant

$$I = I_o e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} \quad \text{where} \quad \tau = \frac{L}{R_p}$$

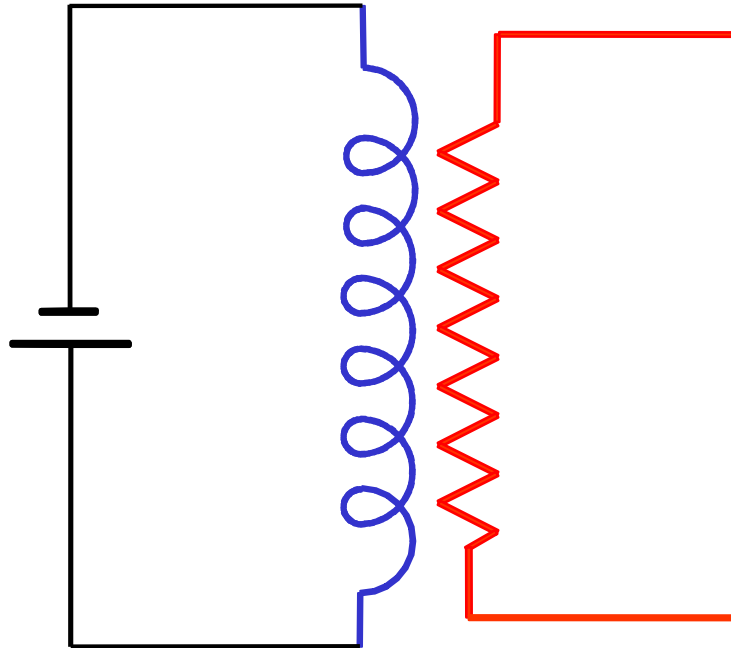
- calculate  $\theta_{\max}$  from

$$J_o^2 \tau = U(\theta_m)$$

*Note: circuit breaker must be able to open at full current against a voltage  $V = I.R_p$  (expensive)*

## Methods of quench protection:

### 2) quench back heater



- detect the quench electronically
- power a heater in good thermal contact with the winding
- this quenches other regions of the magnet, effectively forcing the normal zone to grow more rapidly
  - ⇒ higher resistance
  - ⇒ shorter decay time
  - ⇒ lower temperature rise at the hot spot

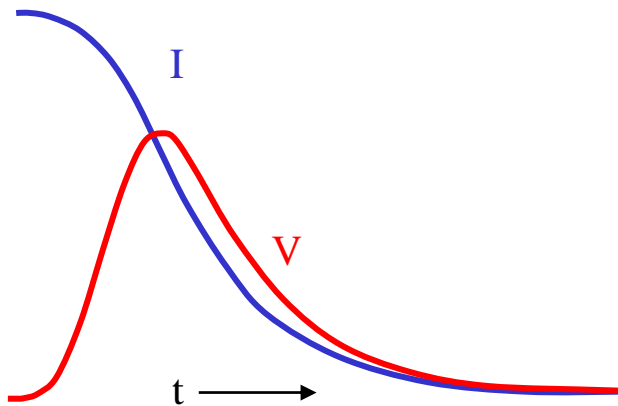
*Note: usually pulse the heater by a capacitor, the high voltages involved raise a conflict between:-*

- *good thermal contact*
- *good electrical insulation*

*method most commonly used in accelerator magnets ✓*

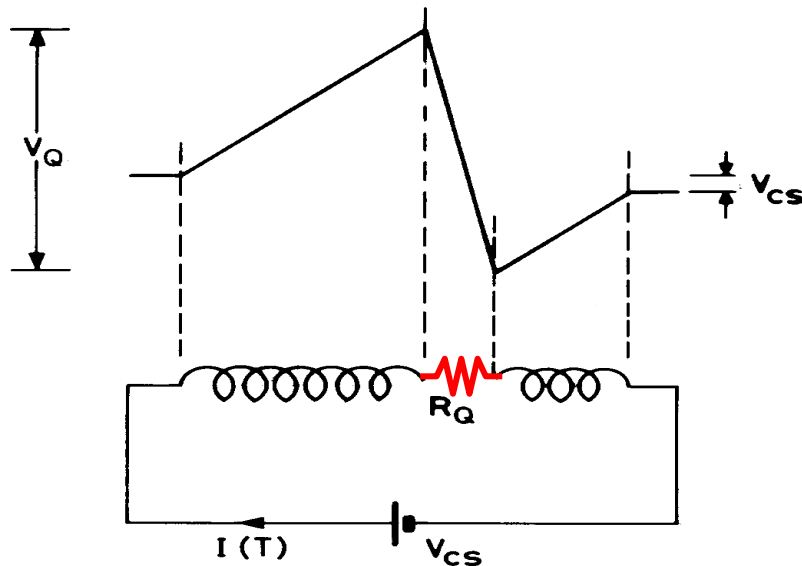
## Methods of quench protection:

### 3) quench detection (a)



internal voltage after quench  $V = IR_Q = -L \frac{dI}{dt} + V_{cs}$

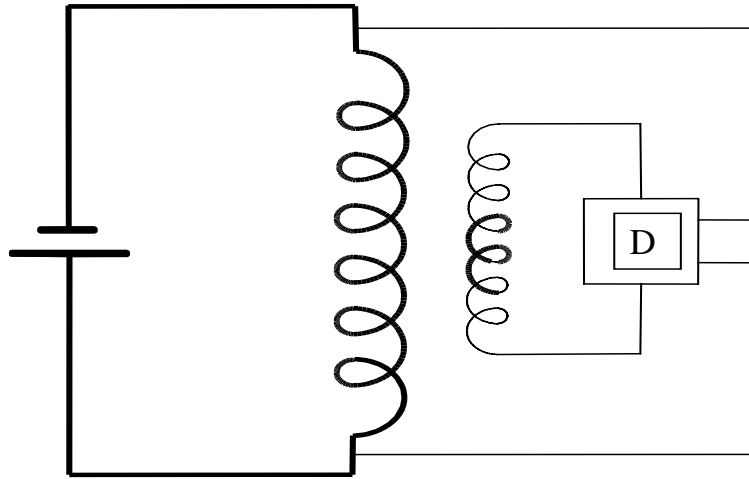
- not much happens in the early stages - small  $dI/dt \Rightarrow$  small  $V$
- but important to act soon if we are to reduce  $T_Q$  significantly
- so must detect small voltage
- superconducting magnets have large inductance  $\Rightarrow$  large voltages during charging
- detector must reject  $V = L dI/dt$  and pick up  $V = IR$
- detector must also withstand high voltage - as must the insulation



## Methods of quench protection:

### 3) quench detection (b)

#### i) Mutual inductance



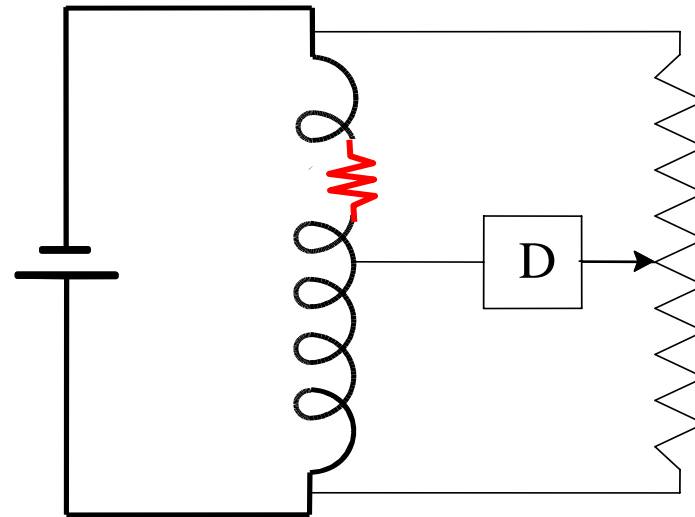
detector subtracts voltages to give

$$V = L \frac{di}{dt} + IR_Q - M \frac{di}{dt}$$

- adjust detector to effectively make  $L = M$
- $M$  can be a toroid linking the current supply bus, but must be linear - no iron!

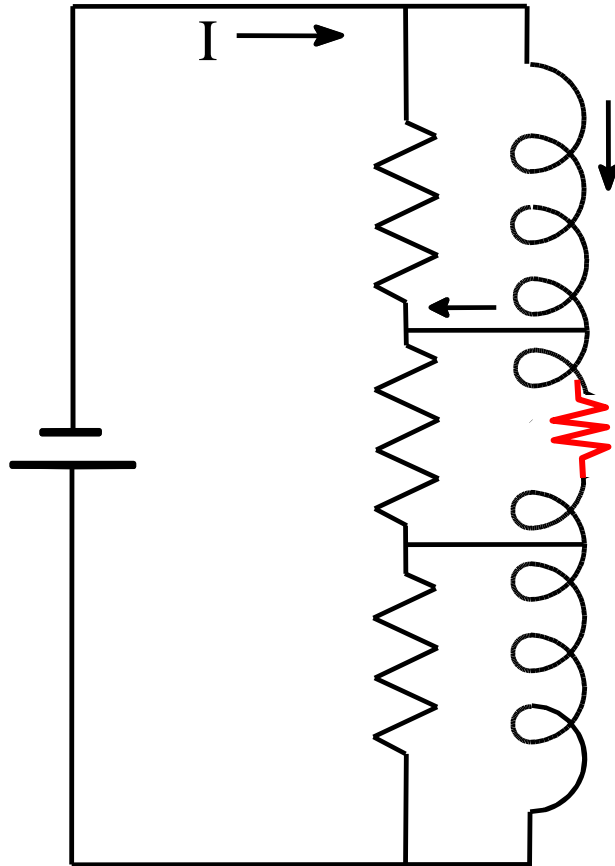
#### ii) Balanced potentiometer

- adjust for balance when not quenched
- unbalance of resistive zone seen as voltage across detector D
- if you worry about symmetrical quenches connect a second detector at a different point

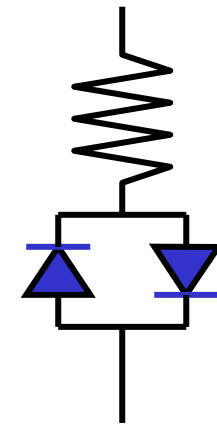


## Methods of quench protection:

### 4) Subdivision



- resistor chain across magnet - cold in cryostat
- current from rest of magnet can by-pass the resistive section
  - ⇒ reduced decay time
  - ⇒ reduced temperature rise
- effective inductance of the quenched section is reduced
  - ⇒ quench initiation in other regions
- often use cold diodes to avoid shunting magnet when charging it
- diodes only conduct (forwards) when voltage rises to quench levels
- connect diodes 'back to back' so they can conduct (above threshold) in either direction



# Case study: LHC dipole protection

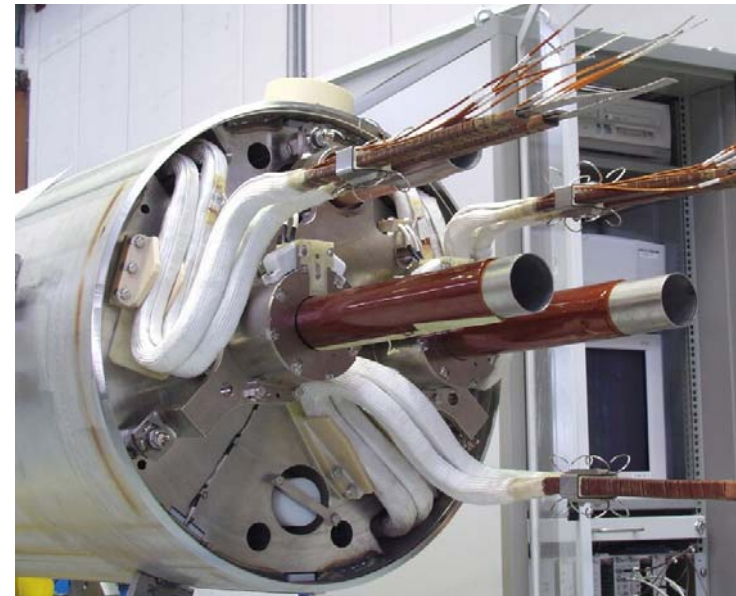
**It's difficult! - the main challenges are:**

## 1) Series connection of many magnets

- In each octant, 154 dipoles are connected in series. If one magnet quenches, the combined inductance of the others will try to maintain the current. Result is that the stored energy of all 154 magnets will be fed into the magnet which has quenched  $\Rightarrow$  vaporization of that magnet!.
- **Solution 1:** put cold diodes across the terminals of each magnet. In normal operation, the diodes do not conduct - so that the magnets all track accurately. At quench, the diodes of the quenched magnet conduct so that the octant current by-passes that magnet.
- **Solution 2:** open a circuit breaker onto a dump resistor (several tonnes) so that the current in the octant is reduced to zero in  $\sim 100$  secs.

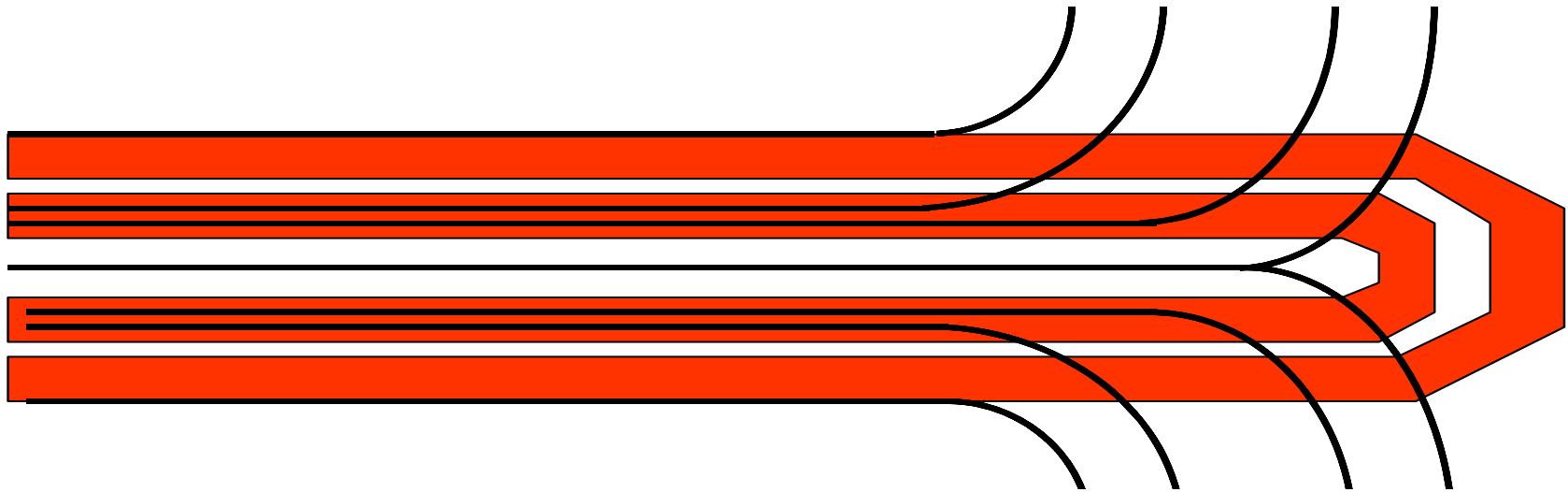
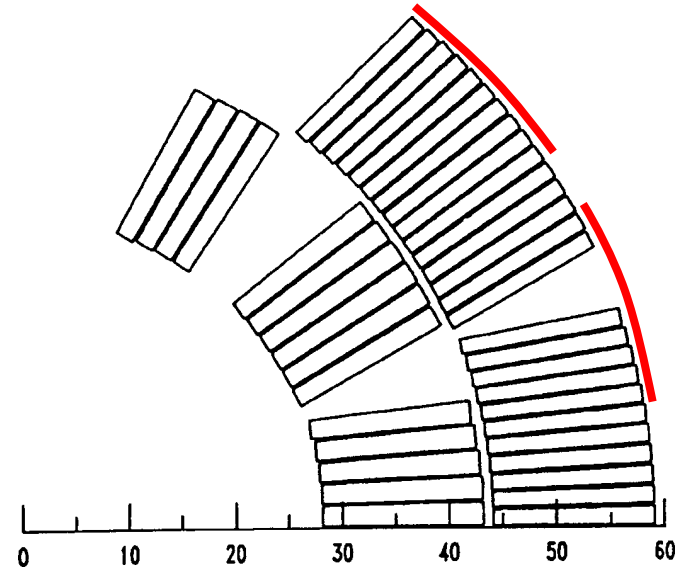
## 2) High current density, high stored energy and long length

- As a result of these factors, the individual magnets are not self protecting. If they were to quench alone or with the by-pass diode, they would still burn out.
- **Solution 3:** Quench heaters on top and bottom halves of every magnet.

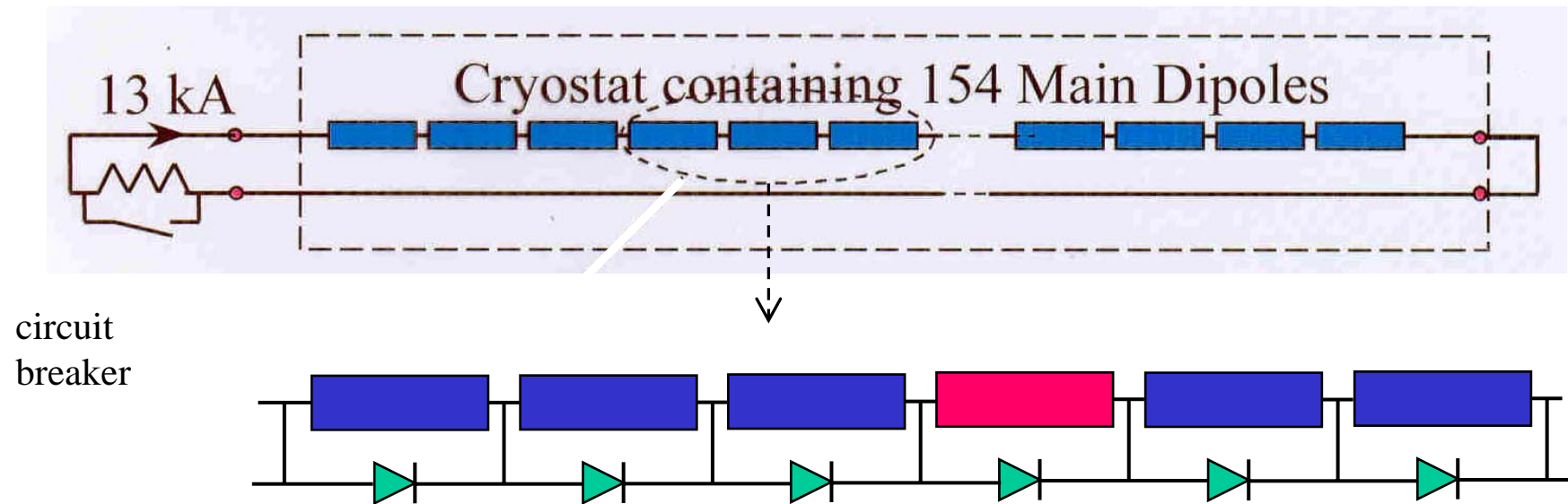


# *LHC quench-back heaters*

- stainless steel foil 15mm x 25  $\mu\text{m}$  glued to outer surface of winding
- insulated by Kapton
- pulsed by capacitor 2 x 3.3 mF at 400 V = 500 J
- quench delay
  - at rated current = 30msec
  - at 60% of rated current = 50msec
- copper plated 'stripes' to reduce resistance



# *LHC power supply circuit for one octant*



- diodes allow the octant current to by-pass the magnet which has quenched
- circuit breaker reduces to octant current to zero with a time constant of 100 sec
- initial voltage across breaker = 2000V
- stored energy of the octant = 1.33GJ



# *Diodes to by-pass the main ring current*

Installing the cold diode  
package on the end of an  
LHC dipole

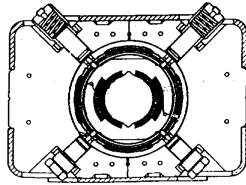


# Quenching: concluding remarks

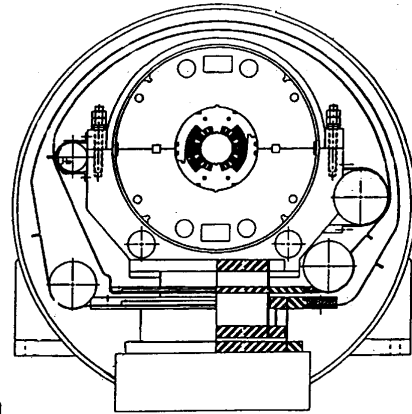
- magnets store large amounts of energy - during a quench this energy gets dumped in the winding  
⇒ intense heating ( $J \sim$  fuse blowing)      ⇒ possible death of magnet
- temperature rise and internal voltage can be calculated from the current decay time
- computer modelling of the quench process gives an estimate of decay time  
– but must decide where the quench starts
- if temperature rise is too much, must use a protection scheme
- active quench protection schemes use quench heaters or an external circuit breaker  
– need a quench detection circuit which must reject  $LdI/dt$  and be **100% reliable**
- passive quench protection schemes are less effective because  $V$  grows so slowly  
– but are 100% reliable
- protection of accelerator magnets is made more difficult by series connection  
– all the other magnets feed their energy into the one that quenches
- for accelerator magnets use by-pass diodes and quench heaters
- remember the quench when designing the magnet insulation

**always do the quench calculations before testing the magnet ✓**

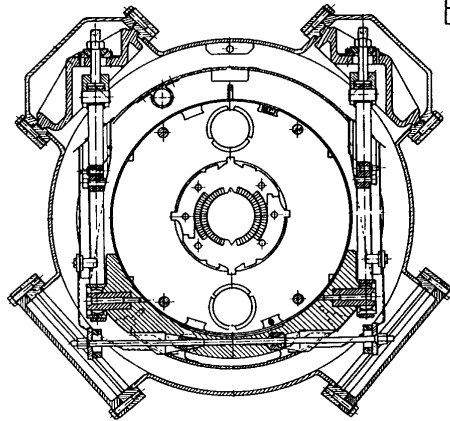
# *The world's superconducting accelerator dipoles*



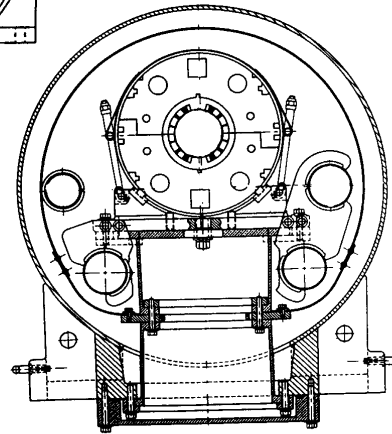
Tevatron



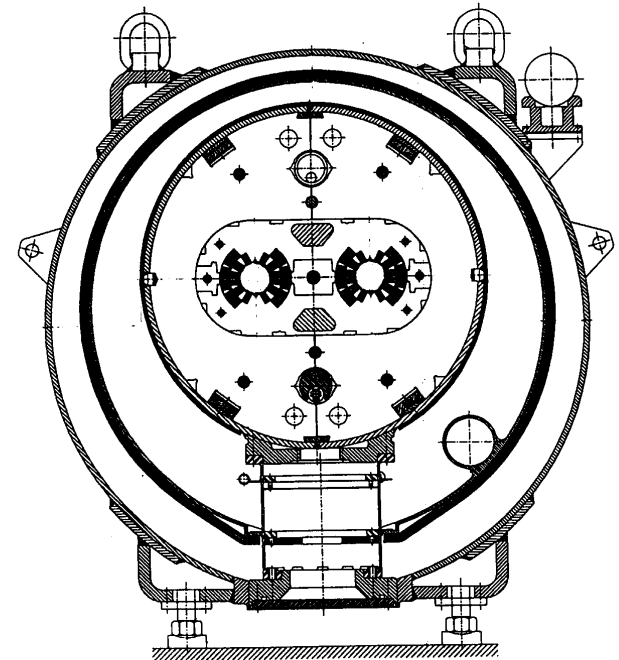
SSC



HERA



RHIC

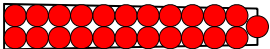
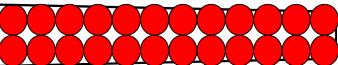
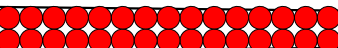
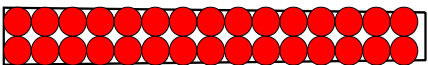
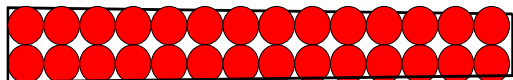
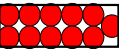


LHC

## *Key parameters of dipoles*

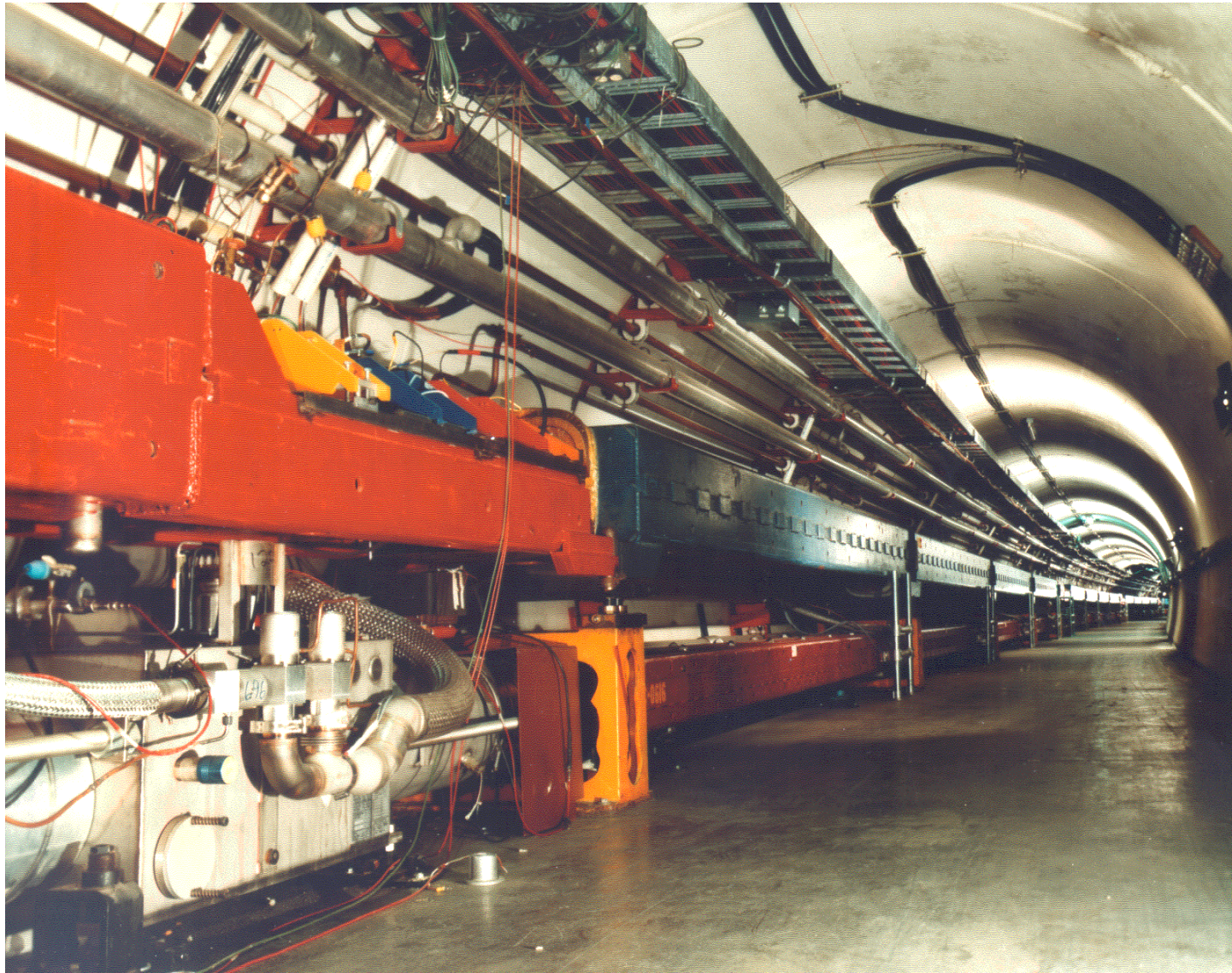
|                       |     | Tevatron | HERA | SSC           | RHIC       | LHC          | Helios |
|-----------------------|-----|----------|------|---------------|------------|--------------|--------|
| max energy            | GeV | 950      | 820  | 20,000<br>x 2 | 250<br>x 2 | 7,000<br>x 2 | 0.7    |
| max field             | T   | 4.4      | 4.68 | 6.79          | 3.46       | 8.36         | 4.5    |
| max current           | kA  | 4.4.     | 5.03 | 6.5           | 5.09       | 11.5         | 1.04   |
| injection field       | T   | 0.66     | 0.23 | 0.68          | 0.4        | 0.58         | 0.64   |
| aperture              | mm  | 76       | 75   | 50            | 80         | 56           | 58     |
| length                | m   | 6.1      | 8.8  | 15.2          | 9.4        | 14.2         | 1.6    |
| operating temperature | K   | 4.6      | 4.5  | 4.35          | 4.6        | 1.9          | 4.5    |
| number off            |     | 774      | 422  | 3972          | 396        | 1232         | 2      |

# *Superconducting cables of the world's accelerators*

| accelerator | cable   | filament dia<br>$\mu\text{m}$ | cable width<br>mm | twist pitch<br>mm | wire surface |
|-------------|---|-------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------|
| Tevatron    |    | 6                             | 7.8               | 66                | zebra        |
| HERA        |    | 14-16                         | 10                | 95                | SnAg         |
| RHIC        |    | 6                             | 9.7               | 73                | copper       |
| SSC         |    | 6                             | 12.3              | 79                | copper       |
| LHC         |   | 7                             | 15                | 115               | SnAg pre-ox  |
| Helios      |  | 8.5                           | 3.2               | 40                | copper       |



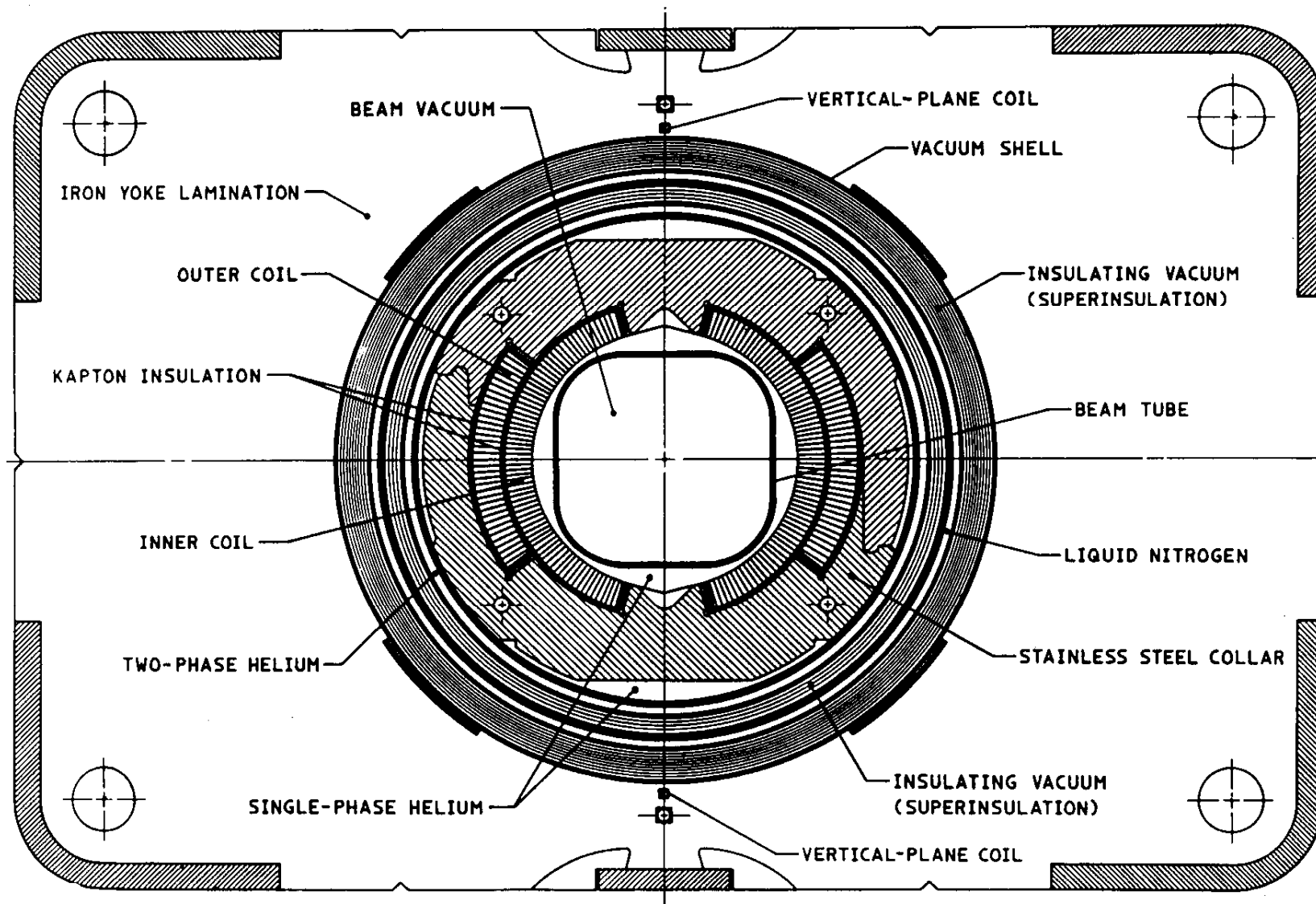
# *The Fermilab Tevatron*



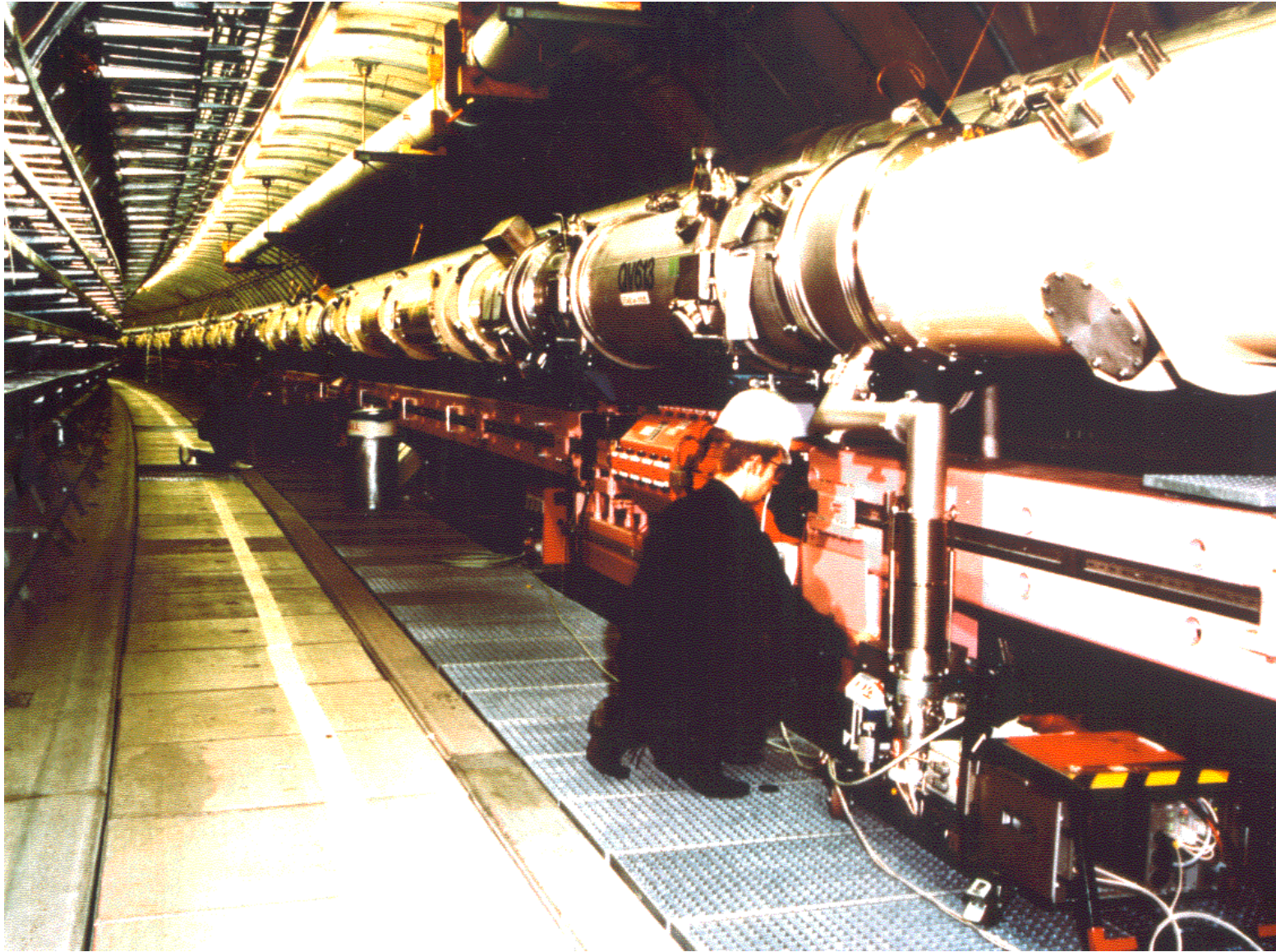
*the world's first  
superconducting  
accelerator*



# *Tevatron dipole*



# *Hera*

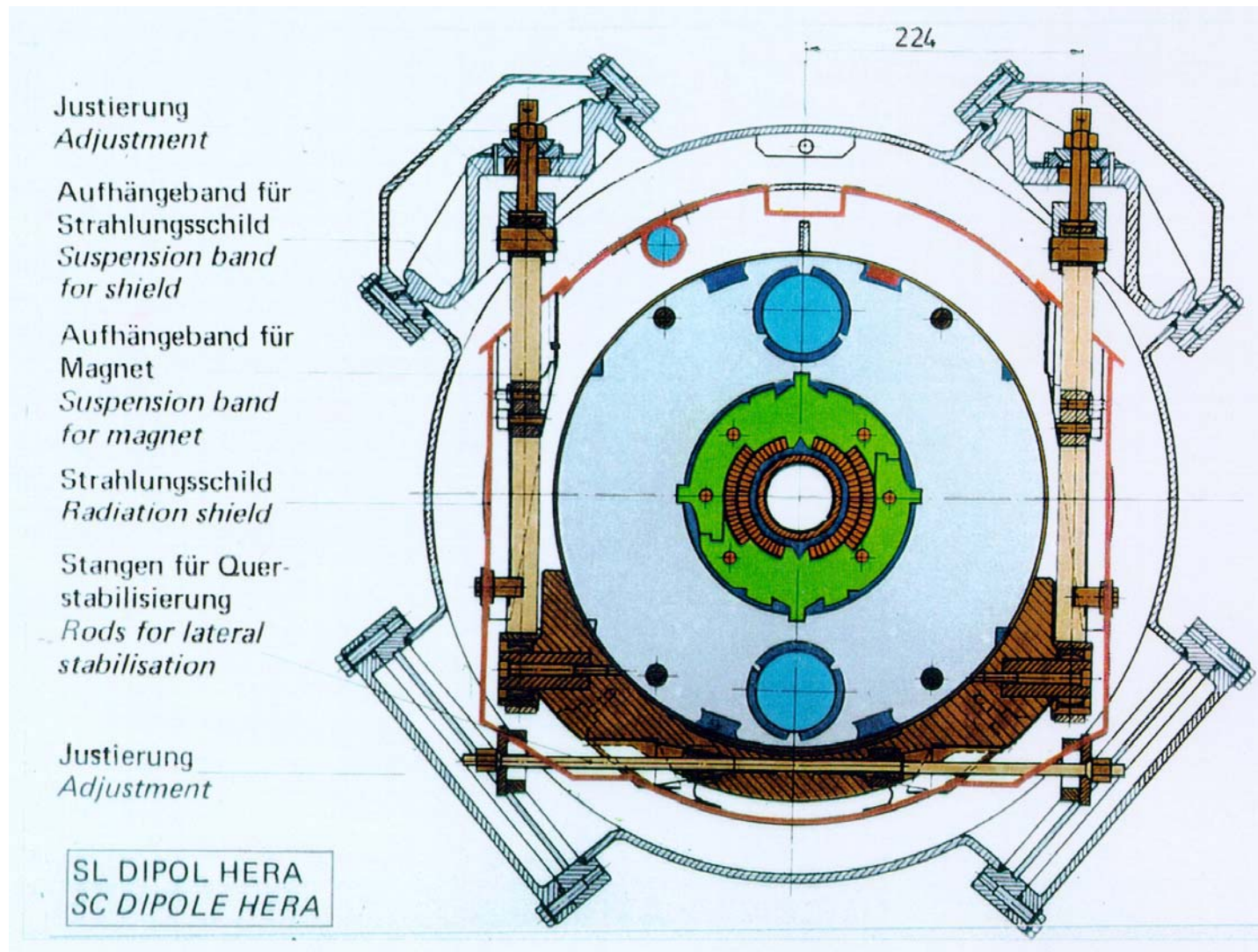


*Martin Wilson Lecture 5 slide32*

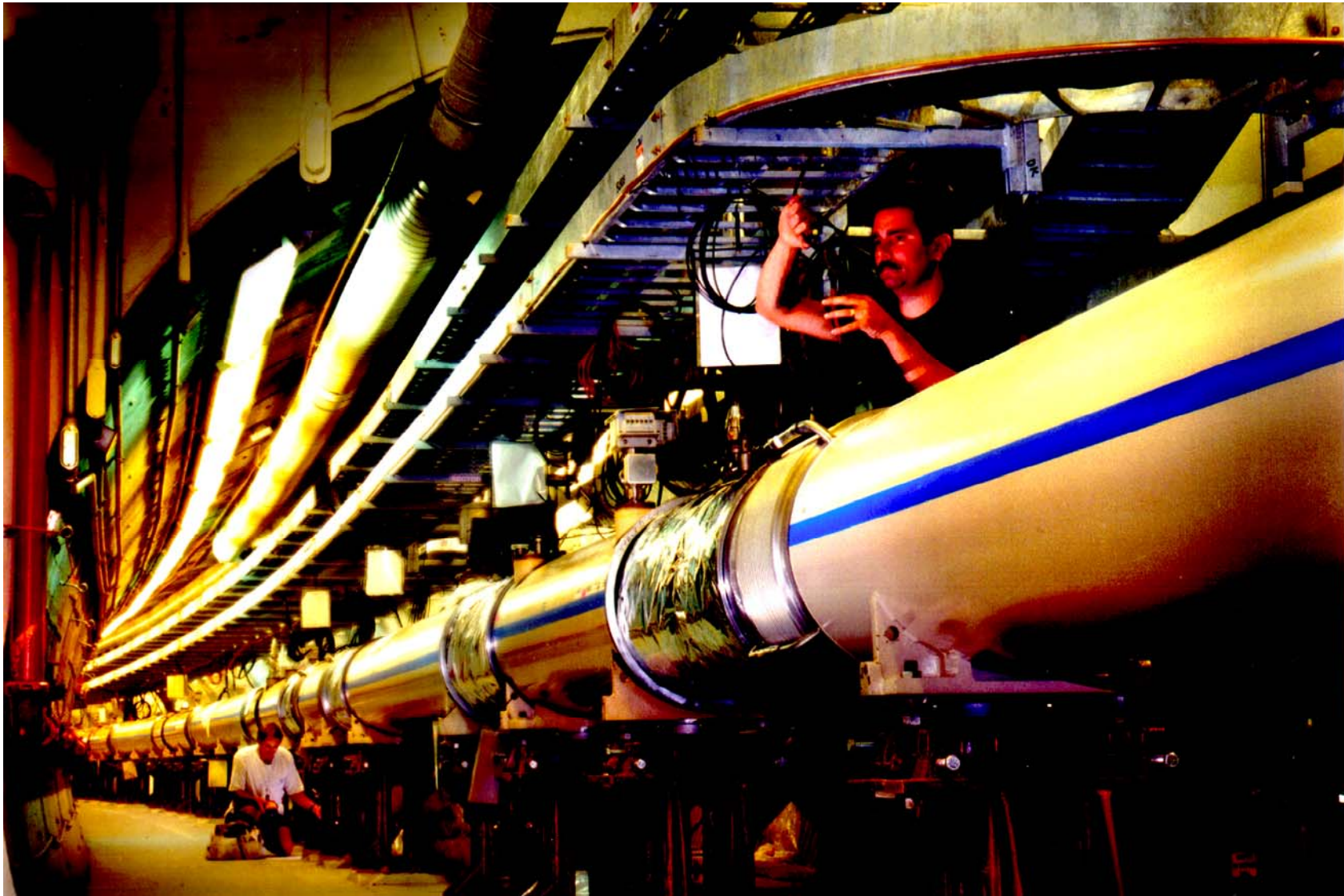
*'Pulsed Superconducting Magnets' CERN Academic Training May 2006*



# Hera dipole

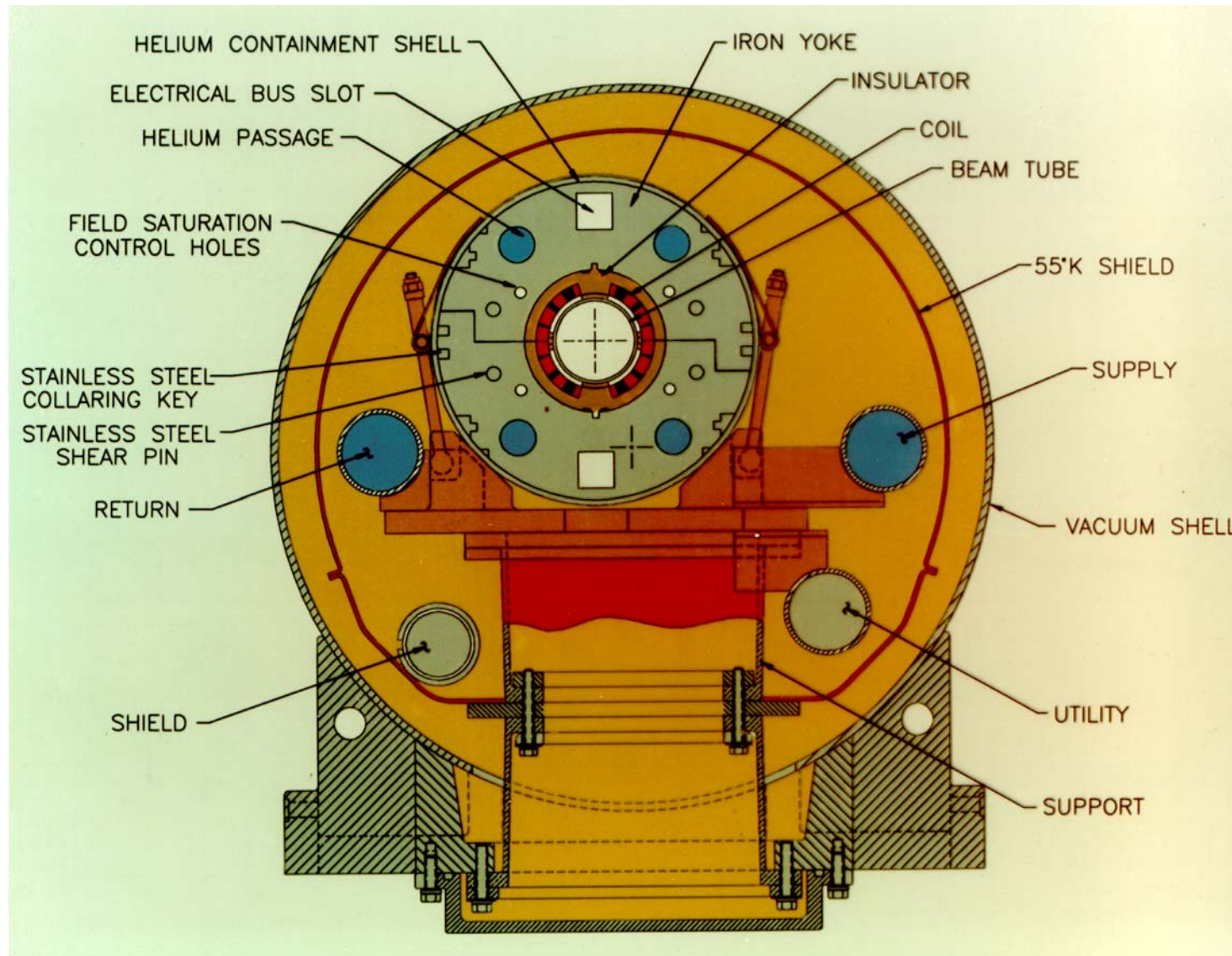


# *RHIC*



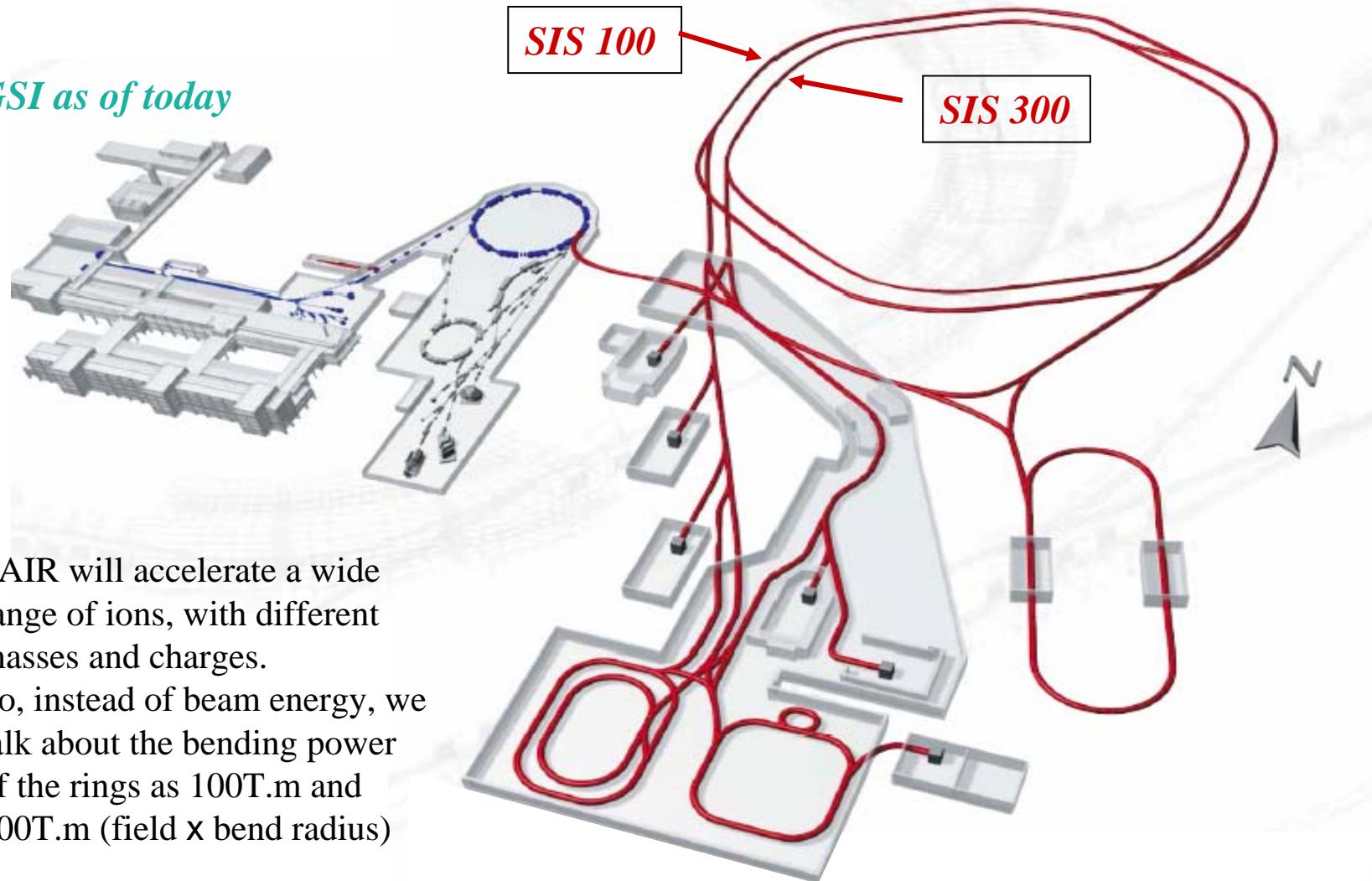


# *RHIC Dipole*



# Facility for Antiproton and ion research FAIR

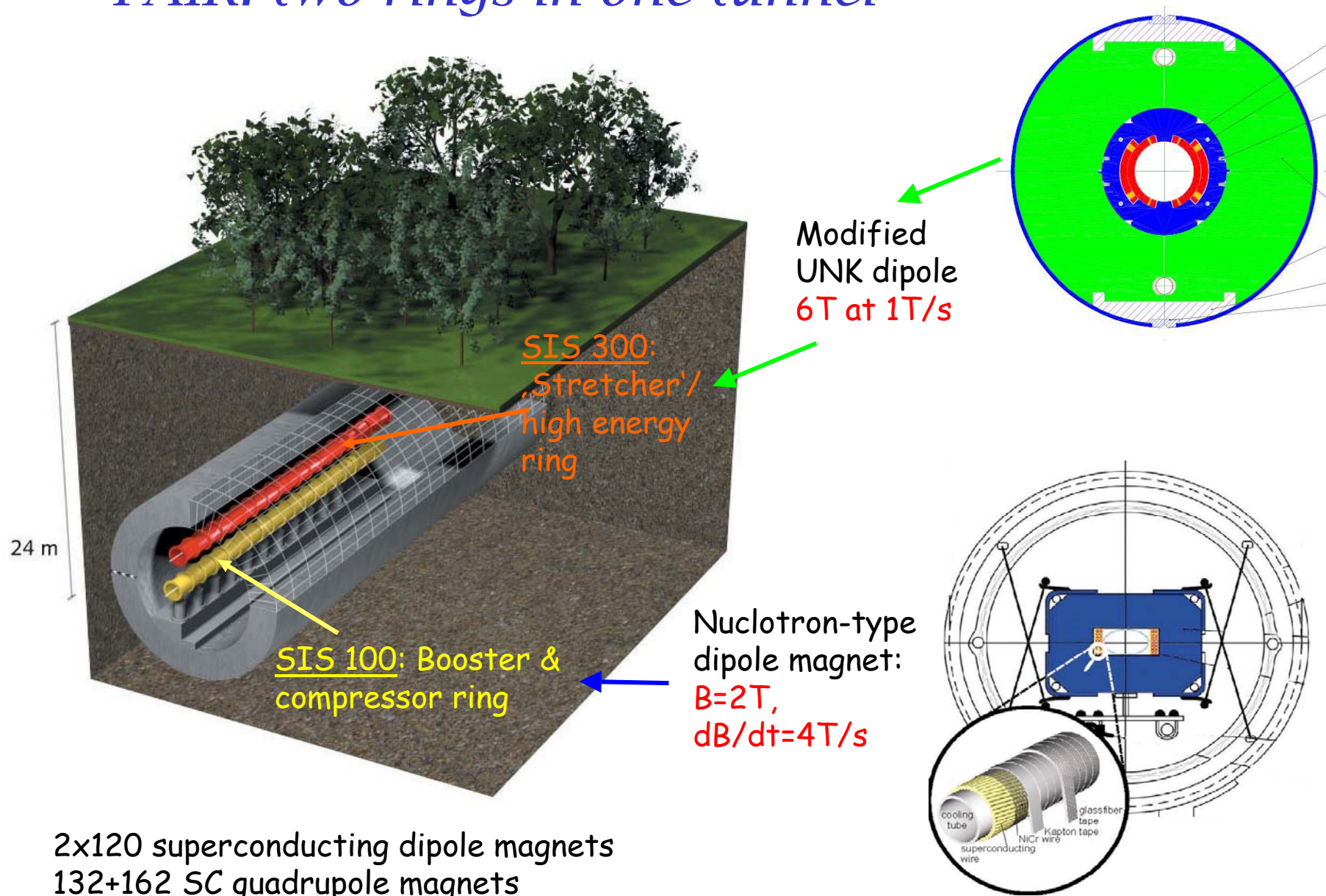
*GSI as of today*



FAIR will accelerate a wide range of ions, with different masses and charges. So, instead of beam energy, we talk about the bending power of the rings as 100T.m and 300T.m (field x bend radius)

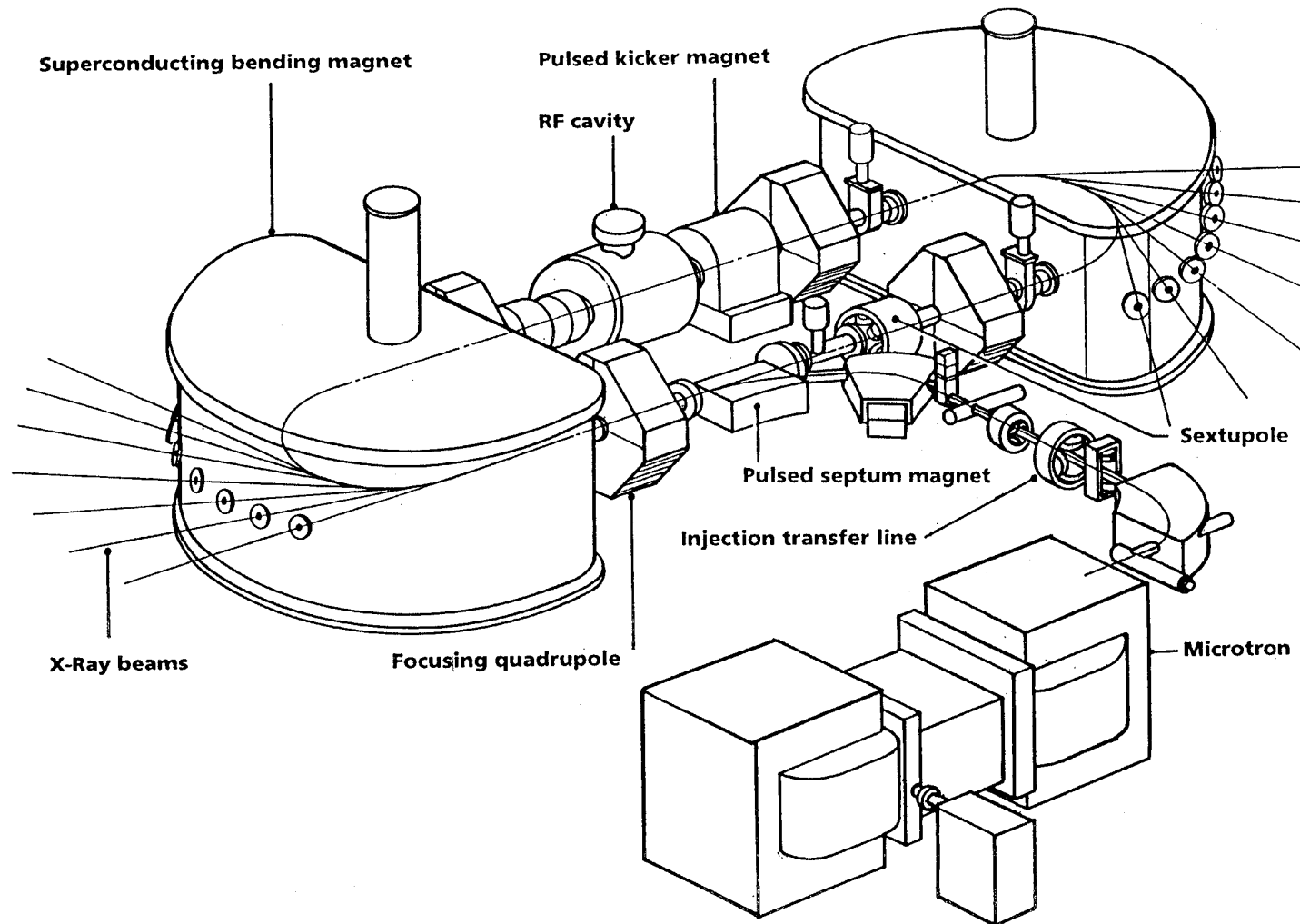


# FAIR: two rings in one tunnel



2x120 superconducting dipole magnets  
132+162 SC quadrupole magnets

# *X-ray beams for microchip lithography: the compact electron storage ring Helios*





# Helios



superconductivity

⇒

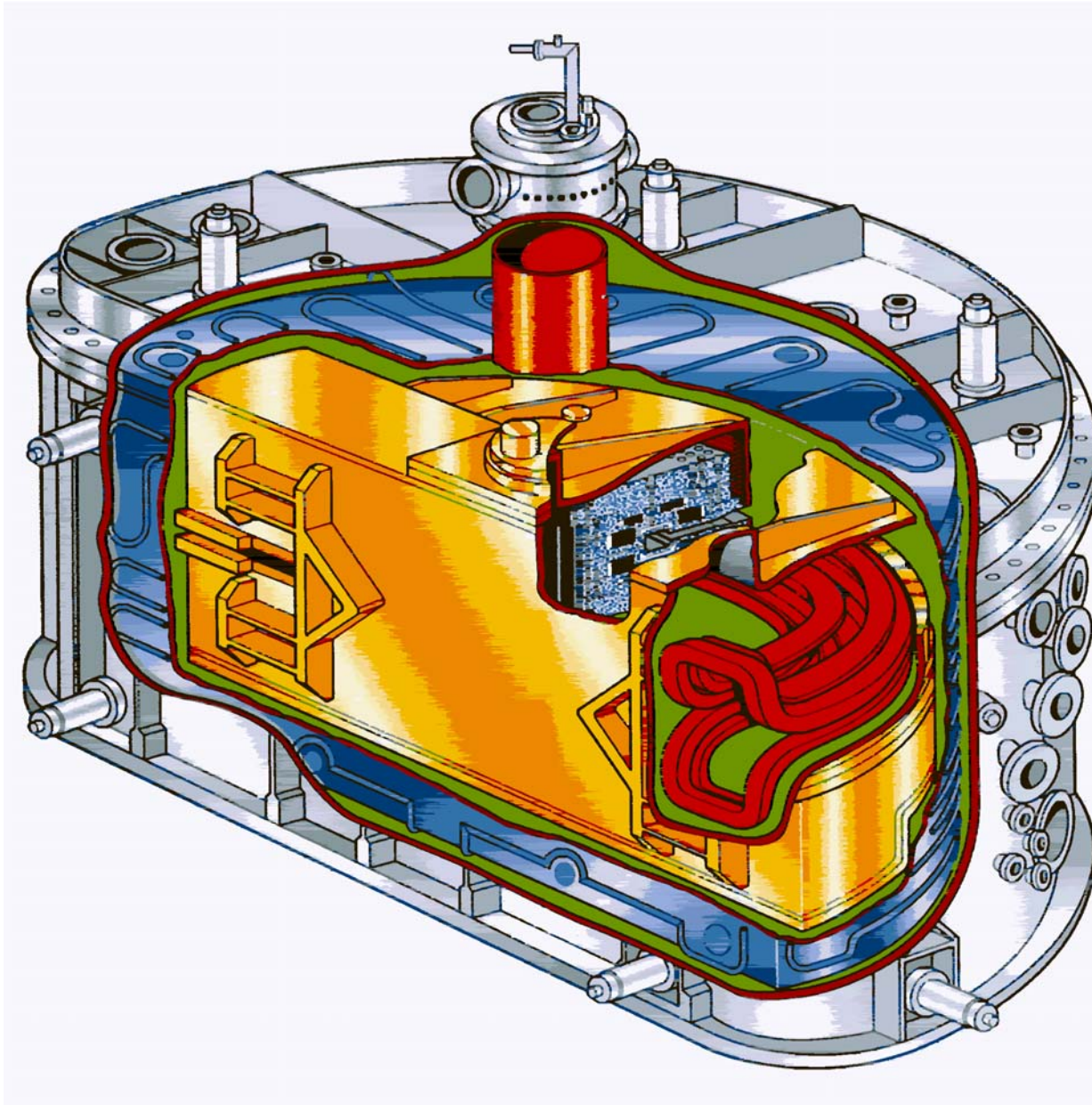
compact size

⇒

transportability



# *Helios dipole*



- bent around  $180^\circ$
- rectangular block coil section
- totally clear gap on outer mid plane for emerging X-rays (12 kW)





## *Helios dipole assembly*

ultra clean conditions because UHV  
needed for beam lifetime